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Educational News and Editorial Comment

HARRY PRATT JUDSON

Harry Pratt Judson, president emeritus of the University of Chicago, died on Friday, March 4, 1927, after a brief illness.

He retired from the presidency on February 20, 1923, on the sixteenth anniversary of his assumption of that office. At that time the editors of the *School Review* took the opportunity to comment on his contributions to secondary education.

Since his retirement, President Judson has been engaged in writing books and articles on the science of government, in which he was a specialist, and has continued his active service in the General Education Board, the American Council on Education, and other boards of which he has long been a member.

The contributions which President Judson made to American education reach far beyond the particular institutions with which he was connected. He was broad enough in his views to realize that neither the colleges nor the high schools can prosper until the whole educational system of the country is organized on a scientific and economical plan. He exercised the large influence which he commanded to promote a reconstruction which is now well under way. His sympathy was large for the junior high school and for the junior college as well as for the other units of the secondary and university

system of the country. He sought for all these units a more compact and fully co-ordinated plan of operation. He was active in eliminating waste wherever he found it.

There is need of statesmen in education who will follow President Judson's example of dealing with all the institutions which are parts of the American plan of education. Both in his practical administrative activities and in his clear thinking and writing on educational policies, President Judson was a forceful and effective leader and a factor in the permanent shaping of the educational policy of the nation.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The National Association of Secondary School Principals departed this year from its usual practice of holding its annual meeting in conjunction with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. The principals met in St. Louis, Missouri, February 24-26, and the superintendents in Dallas, Texas, from February 26 to March 3. In selecting St. Louis instead of Dallas, the Executive Committee of the principals' association was of the opinion that a larger percentage of the members would be able to attend. Many principals, particularly those of the South and West, objected to the meeting being held in St. Louis; and, to provide for them, the officers of the National Education Association authorized the arrangement of a departmental program for secondary-school principals at Dallas, under the direction of C. E. Keyes, principal of the Oakland High School, Oakland, California. Both meetings were well attended. About twice as many principals attended the meeting in St. Louis as attended the tenth annual meeting held in Washington, D.C., last year.

The St. Louis program, arranged by President M. R. McDaniel, was regarded by those in attendance as the best of recent years. Two sessions were open to the public. The principal addresses at these sessions were those of Walter Damrosch, director of the New York Symphony Orchestra, on "The Universal Language"; Joseph K. Hart, associate editor of the *Survey*, on "What Is in the Mind of Modern Youth?" and Judge John H. Clarke, of Cleveland, Ohio, formerly associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, on

"Progress toward World Peace." A chorus of one thousand high-school pupils of St. Louis with high-school orchestra accompanying, led by F. G. Hahnel, director of public-school music, St. Louis, provided the music.

One of the features of the St. Louis meeting was the luncheon on Friday, February 25, at the Hotel Statler. Nearly eight hundred principals were present. The program consisted of singing, led by E. K. Fretwell, Teachers College, Columbia University, and addresses by Colonel Robert I. Rees, of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, on "Articulation of School and Industry" and Charles H. Judd, director of the School of Education, University of Chicago, on the question, "Is There a National System of Secondary Education?"

Section meetings were provided for both junior and senior high school principals. The papers presented at the various meetings appear in the proceedings of the association, which have been mailed to the members by the executive secretary, H. V. Church, principal of the J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois.

Meetings for both junior and senior high school principals were also provided in Dallas. The papers presented will be printed by the National Education Association in the annual proceedings, which will be sent to the members of the association.

A committee with power to act was appointed by the president of the association at St. Louis to complete the negotiations previously entered into with regard to the National Association of Secondary School Principals becoming a department of the National Education Association, similar to the Department of Superintendence. The constitution was modified to conform with the requirements of the National Education Association and was submitted to the Executive Committee of this association and approved. The changes will be submitted to the members of the National Association of Secondary School Principals for ratification thirty days before the next annual meeting. If the action of the committee is approved, the association will become the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association. All principals of secondary schools, namely, junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges; their administrative and executive

assistants; heads of schools of education in normal schools, colleges, and universities, and professors teaching secondary education in such institutions; and secondary-school representatives of state departments of education shall be eligible to active membership in the department on payment of the annual dues, provided they are members of the National Education Association.

The officers of the association for the ensuing year are: President: Francis L. Bacon, Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts. First vice-president: Miss Jessie M. Hamilton, Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colorado. Second vice-president: Charles F. Allen, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas. Secretary-treasurer: H. V. Church, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Illinois. Executive committee: M. R. McDaniel, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois; William E. Wing, Deering High School, Portland, Maine; and L. W. Brooks, Wichita High School, Wichita, Kansas. The president in charge of the program of the Department of Secondary School Principals at the summer meeting of the National Education Association to be held in Seattle, Washington, July 1-8, is C. E. Keyes, principal of the Oakland High School, Oakland, California.

CONFERENCE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO WITH AFFILIATED SCHOOLS

On Friday and Saturday, May 6 and 7, the thirty-ninth conference of the University of Chicago with secondary schools will be held at the University. Meetings of this type were inaugurated with the founding of the University and have been held at least once each year since that time. The example set by them has been very generally followed throughout the North Central states. The purpose of the conference is to promote a spirit of co-operation between the faculties of the University and those of affiliated secondary schools, as well as to discuss the more urgent current problems which are common to the institutions.

In an effort to prepare a program of general interest, committees composed of leading administrators and teachers from the territory around Chicago met early in November, 1926, and listed

the problems which secondary schools are facing and which ought to be discussed at such a conference. These problems were checked by nearly three hundred high-school principals and superintendents. It is important to note that almost 90 per cent of these administrators favored the topics included in the final program.

The morning of Friday, May 6, will be devoted to discussions of problems of curriculum reorganization. The cities of Denver, St. Louis, and Chicago, which have been working for some time on the reorganization of their secondary-school curriculums, will send representatives to describe their methods and to report their results. Problems of personnel work in the high school will be discussed at the afternoon sessions on Friday. These will include "Remedial Reading," "Methods of Handling the 'C' or Slow-Moving Group of Pupils," "Health Counseling," and "Corrective Work in Physical Education." Friday evening all visiting administrative officers will be entertained at a dinner, after which there will be short talks on the problems connected with the recommendation of high-school pupils for college entrance, the plan of selective admission of the University of Chicago, and personnel work among college Freshmen.

On the morning of Saturday, May 7, the classroom teachers and supervisors of special subjects will hold meetings to discuss their problems. Departmental meetings are scheduled in art, biology, commercial education, English, German, Greek and Latin, history and civics, home economics, manual arts, mathematics, physics and chemistry, and the Romance languages. The programs for these meetings have been arranged by committees representing both the high-school teachers and the college departments. Teachers from high schools and colleges in the North Central states will lead the discussions.

A feature of the conference which always attracts a large attendance of pupils is the series of prize scholarship examinations. The examinations this year will be given on the morning of Friday, May 6. Last year more than four hundred high-school Seniors competed in these examinations, and twenty-five scholarships covering a full year's tuition at the University were awarded. In the past contestants have come from a large number of schools, some of them traveling as much as three hundred miles.

Administrative and supervisory officers are invited to participate in the Fourth Annual Meeting of the Midwest Conference on Supervision, which will be held at the University of Chicago on Saturday, May 7, in conjunction with the conference with secondary schools. In the morning speakers will present accounts of actual experimental research in the field of supervision. In the afternoon there will be reports on supervisory procedures and plans which are in use in school systems. While the topics cannot be announced as yet, it can be definitely stated that the following speakers will contribute to the program: Professor A. S. Barr, University of Wisconsin; Professor William S. Gray, University of Chicago; E. E. Keener, director of instructional research for the school system of Chicago; H. O. Gillet, University Elementary School, University of Chicago; and H. E. Hall, superintendent of the schools of Wood County, Ohio.

EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY OF COLLEGE UNDERGRADUATES

Those who believe in "education by participation" will welcome *The Report of the Student Committee of Seventeen*, recently submitted to the faculty of Purdue University and published as a bulletin of the University. In December, 1926, President Edward C. Elliott, who had acted with the committee in an advisory capacity, transmitted the final report to the faculty, with these comments on the spirit of the entire undertaking:

This is the first draft of what may be called an undergraduate educational philosophy. As such, it is hoped that it will stimulate further student thinking and proposals concerning the formal and the informal operation of the University.

While the present report may not furnish a solution of any of the difficult problems of the University, it demonstrates that the University may depend upon the active co-operation of the student leaders in the formulation of university policies for progress.

Undertaking what is called "an examination, a critical evaluation, and a re-definition of the goals of Purdue," the student committee lays stress on ethical and moral values and on creative as contrasted with accretive intellectual activities.

No matter in what human activities one participates, one should recognize that the phases of life concerned with living are of as great importance as those

concerned with making a living. And it is upon the ground of knowing how to live as the first requirement, and of making a living as the second, that we have set forth the purposes of Purdue. It is perhaps true that the approach to these fundamentals of living can be made through the method of making a living; but this approach will involve a change in methods and a shift in emphasis in many cases, a liberalization of courses, and decisions or choices of life-work later in the college career. . . .

With this preliminary discussion in mind, we believe that the purposes of Purdue are: (1) to develop character; (2) to train the student to think; (3) to help the student to orient himself in the world in which he lives; and, if possible, (4) to awaken him intellectually.

The students recommend that every instructor ask himself four questions about each course under his charge: "What are the character-developing qualities of my course?" "In what way does my course train students to think?" "How does this course help the student to orient himself in the world in which he lives?" "How does this course and the method of administering it awaken the student intellectually?"

Adopting "ability to teach" and "knowledge of the subject" as the criteria of excellent instruction, the committee makes five constructive suggestions:

1. The attitude of the instructor should be objective rather than subjective. . . .
2. The instructor should accept the student on his own plane and make him feel that the working out of the course is a mutual process. . . .
3. Contact between instructor and student outside the classroom should be encouraged. It is by this method only that personalities can be understood.
4. Those instructors who are working for degrees and teaching at the same time should be eliminated whenever they are spending the major part of their time and interest in getting the degree and not in instruction. Wherever it is advisable to retain such an arrangement, instruction should be given only in the subjects in which the degree is sought.
5. The standing and development of the instructor should be based upon his ability to teach. . . .

Other recommendations concern a personnel department dedicated to the study of the undergraduate, personal counselors, fundamentals in instruction rather than details, more experienced instructors for elementary classes, personal acquaintance of senior-college students with department heads, and character-building by "*assuming honesty on the part of the student*" (the italics theirs). The

students urge the establishment of such contacts in all courses as will guide students into appropriate life-work; they also lay special stress on the desirability of directing Seniors into graduate work. They deplore the prevalence of such directions as "define" and "describe fully" in examinations as calling forth hazy generalizations; they advise, instead, questions that will test power to think in terms of course fundamentals. Believing that the grades A, B, and P are inadequate because the gaps between them are too large, they urge "an increment of 5 between the grades" in order that a student with a P average may not be classed with a student with an A average.

As might be anticipated, this committee, made up of campus leaders, heartily favors "activities" as means of developing leadership and citizenship as well as means of developing specialized information and experience. They think that the 175 student organizations at Purdue are not too many but that the students participating actively are too few. They discuss as follows certain problems not yet solved by any college community:

One of the chief criticisms of student activities at Purdue is that they are subject to politics of a somewhat questionable nature. This contention is borne out by the observation that men of inferior ability are often elected or appointed to a high position in a student organization over men of superior ability. . . .

There is an unfortunate division of the Purdue student body into two parties, the fraternity and the non-fraternity. This tends to make every election a test of strength between the organized men and the unorganized men. The real ability of the candidates is quite often overlooked. A man's success in an activity is often determined by his fraternity affiliations. It is politics of this kind that is highly undesirable. This division between the organized and the unorganized is the more dangerous as it tends to widen the gap and to emphasize the lack of understanding that already exists between these two groups.

The problem of eradicating this type of politics is mainly one of education, of instilling new ideas and principles into Freshmen entering the institution. As it is, each new student takes his attitude toward the college and toward its student organizations from the upper classmen with whom he comes in contact. To better the situation, then, it is necessary to counteract in the mind of the entering student the undesirable impressions and ideas given by the older students.

We hold that the educational value of intercollegiate athletics is good in the light of the established purposes of the college if the objectives are (1) recreation, (2) sportsmanship applied to the largest possible group, and (3) a secondary consideration of financial matters and increasing interest in the intramural depart-

ment. If the objectives are making money, advertising the college, winning games as such, then we believe that they defeat the purposes of the college. Use of the athletic system to make money to carry the intramural department, and those wrong objectives, namely, publicity for the college and winning games as such, are destructive of the positive objectives of athletics, recreation and sportsmanship, and tend toward the dangers of commercialism. If sufficient funds cannot be raised to carry the intramural department when the positive objectives are the goals, then the deficit should be provided for in the college budget.

Purdue is to be congratulated on the fact that faculty and students are facing together various unsolved problems of university life. Not the intrinsic value of the student committee's product, but their intelligent endeavor to solve problems, is after all the basis of growth. With President Elliott's statement that the report may not furnish the solutions of any of the difficult problems of the University, the committee itself is in full accord:

We do not present this report as complete and final, nor as right in every respect. We do believe, however, that it marks the beginning of an era in the history of Purdue when students will participate in their own education more than at present. This we deem necessary if education is to be the vital force that energizes civilization.

We have frankly tried to make the report helpful, for it was in a spirit of helpfulness that the work was done, and therefore we hope that it will be received with an open mind as from a group of students who have been sufficiently interested in Purdue voluntarily to take time out of their busy schedule to make this contribution.

A COURSE IN MANNERS

The following account of a new course in manners given in the John Adams High School, of Cleveland, is quoted from the *New York Sun*.

The first year of an experiment with a course which provides for a regular class period of forty-five minutes a day for training girls in poise and good manners has been successfully completed. Throughout the country educators are talking about teaching character, manners, and morals. In the John Adams High School, of Cleveland, at least the outward signs of character and good breeding are taught.

The class is known as the "personal regimen" course. Its syllabus includes instruction in how to dress, in health and manners, in relationship to others at home and in school, in the use of one's own money, and in other matters bearing on social activities.

The course was developed by two teachers of the John Adams High School,

Dorothy Jones and Alma Probeck. According to a recent report on the experiment, "it is based on the definite needs of senior high school girls inasmuch as it offers an opportunity for open discussion of these problems most interesting and vital to them."

This is not a "laboratory course." "It has met forty-five minutes daily for a year, and enough outside work is required to warrant giving it full academic credit."

The following quotations from essays written by the personal regimen class give concrete examples of the application of the rules and standards taught in the class.

"One night my girl friend and I went to a dance. She did not know anyone there, so I introduced her to some of the boys and to a few of the elderly ladies. I knew what to say when I introduced her, and, as she is in our personal regimen class, she knew how to acknowledge the introduction. Later one of the ladies told someone that she liked us very much. We can thank personal regimen for this."

"Personal regimen helped me in the choice of my winter coat. Instead of getting a coat trimmed in a quantity of fur of a quality that comes out, I had enough sense to pick one with less and better fur. Instead of a brown coat, I picked a warm red bolivia that added sheen to my hair and color to my cheeks."

"We have been talking about how to gain poise. A few days ago in the English class I had to tell of some incident I had read in *Lorna Doone*. Last term I couldn't talk in front of a class without being much confused. In this class I got up and talked better than I ever did before. I am doing better work this term."

"I have learned to control my terrible temper at home, at school, and other places. I usually argue with my two brothers over something. The other night my brother started a new argument. To his surprise I didn't answer him, but he kept on challenging me. I just walked away, and he stared and stopped talking. We argue very little these days, and peace usually reigns at our house."

"My grandmother has a very unattractive living-room. In personal regimen we learned something about the comfortable and artistic arrangement of furniture. My grandmother had an old leather lounge which was so worn that she kept it in the attic. This I brought down, covered it with cretonne, made some drapes for the window, and placed a lamp near the head of the lounge. My uncle says that this is now the nicest and most comfortable corner in the house."

"I never knew before that it made any difference whose name you said first in making an introduction or that this was where you should show courtesy to an elder. But now I stop and think before introducing."

TRENDS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE HIGH-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

A group of principals of suburban high schools in the vicinity of Chicago meets during the winter months and collects from time

to time comparative statistics on various aspects of high-school administration. Recently facts were compiled showing the number of units in various subjects added to the curriculum during each five-year period since 1900 and the number of units withdrawn. The following table shows the facts for ten schools. The reports for one of the schools begin with 1905; the reports for another school, with 1909.

Subject	NUMBER OF UNITS ADDED						NUMBER OF UNITS WITHDRAWN					
	1900 to 1905	1905 to 1910	1910 to 1915	1915 to 1920	1920 to 1925	Total	1900 to 1905	1905 to 1910	1910 to 1915	1915 to 1920	1920 to 1925	Total
English.....	2.0	3.0	1.0	2.5	3.0	11.5	1.0	2.0	2.0	5.0
Latin.....	2.0	3.0	1.0	8.0
German.....	2.0	2.0	8.0	12.0	1.0	4.0	15.0	20.0
Spanish.....	2.0	3.0	1.0	11.0	2.0	19.0	2.0	2.0
French.....	4.0	5.0	1.0	10.0
Greek.....	2.0	2.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	8.0
Mathematics.....	1.0	3.0	2.0	2.5	8.5	0.5	1.0	1.5
Natural science.....	2.0	4.0	5.5	4.0	6.0	21.5	3.0	3.0	2.0	2.0	9.5	19.5
Social science.....	4.5	12.0	4.0	5.0	13.0	38.5	1.0	6.0	2.0	9.0	18.0
Commercial subjects.....	7.1	6.5	17.0	16.0	12.0	58.6	1.5	2.0	6.0	4.0	13.5
Manual arts.....	2.5	12.0	6.0	4.0	15.0	39.5	2.0	1.0	3.0
Domestic arts.....	3.7	4.0	13.0	4.0	2.5	27.2	3.0	3.0
Agriculture.....	1.0	5.5	6.5	1.0	2.0	3.0
Music.....	1.2	1.0	3.8	6.0	12.0
Art.....	1.0	5.0	2.0	8.0	1.0	1.0
Teacher training.....	2.0	2.0	1.0	1.0
Physical training.....	3.4	2.0	1.0	6.4	1.0	1.0
Guidance.....	1.0	0.5	1.5
Total.....	31.8	56.1	52.5	70.3	74.0	284.7	7.5	15.5	17.0	37.0	30.5	107.5

HELPING PUPILS WHO ARE FAILING

A recent issue of the *Chicago Schools Journal* contains an article by George E. Prinsen, teacher in charge of the Mayfair annex of the Hibbard High School of Chicago, describing methods which he employs in dealing with pupils who are failing in their studies. A supervised-study class in which the pupil is given individual help by the teacher or by an especially able pupil is one of the methods tried. In such classes the failing pupils are given instruction in the right way to study.

A second plan is to assign the pupil to an extra class in the subject in which he is the weakest. If possible, the pupil is assigned to

a class taught by his regular teacher in the subject. If not, he is assigned to any teacher having a class in the same subject at a period when the pupil is "free." Teachers taking such extra pupils into their regular classes are not required to give them marks.

It has been found that students respond readily to this double-exposure method. The student taking an extra class finds that the information and help thus obtained can be used in his regular recitation in that subject, so that his failure mark is raised materially at the end of the quarter. . . .

When a student is once assigned to a supervised class, he must remain there until he is issued a dismissal form by the teacher in charge. To be dismissed, he must have achieved an 80 per cent grade in the subject in which he was formerly failing. He may then return to general study in the study hall, or, if the special study came at the end of the day, he may again be set "free" at the early hour.

Mere assignment to special classes does not dismiss him from the mind of the teacher in charge of this matter, however. At the time of his assignment, he is told definitely when to report back to her, and conditions are checked to verify efficacy of treatment. In this way the student feels the personal interest of the department. . . .

We have tried to realize that each child's problem is his individual problem and that it must be met in an individual manner. If the subject is one where mechanical skill predominates, as in typewriting, time, a place, and an idle machine are all that is required; if practice is the danger point, as might be the case in beginning stenography, more teacher-supervision is needed; but if the weak subject is algebra or science, where the emphasis is on *thinking* rather than on mechanical skill or practice, constant individual supervision is essential. . . .

During the first semester of the school year 1925-26, 742 students were enrolled. Counting major subjects only, and counting four to a student, we approximated 2,968 student subjects. During the semester 421 subject failures were reported, filed, interviewed, and assigned to special remedial classes. Of the 421 thus reported, 317 passed in the subject which threatened failure. Of the 104 who did not succeed in passing, about one-half moved away, left school, left the district, etc. Several were examined by the Board Child Study Department, and our position grounded in its findings.

At any rate, it is pleasant to consider the 317 for a moment. Three hundred and seventeen individual subject failures were helped to pass. Counting four subjects to a pupil, this means about eighty students. Eighty students will make two good-sized rooms. This means that our little school of 742 enrolment saved the Board of Education the employment of two teachers.

THE PROBLEM OF STUDENT HONOR IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

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University of Chicago

In 1924 the University of Chicago established a University Honor Commission, consisting of six faculty members appointed by the president and six students nominated by the student members of the commission and elected by their respective classes. To this body was assigned the twofold duty of promoting the honor sentiment throughout the student body and of investigating and trying cases of alleged dishonesty. The decisions of the commission are subject to the approval of the dean and the president, who are, therefore, the ultimate disciplinary officers. Desiring to acquaint themselves with the procedures of committees responsible for honorable conduct in other institutions, the commission solicited and received information from fifty colleges and universities, the student bodies of which range from 1,500 to 12,000 in number. This article is a digest of the information thus received.

THE NEED FOR PROMOTING HONORABLE CONDUCT

Recognition of the need for promoting honorable conduct, especially in examinations, is universal. Students assert that cheating is more prevalent in colleges than in high schools, a position with which administrative officers are in accord. Typical comments of disciplinary officers are as follows:

In this university drinking and similar dissipations at parties and in fraternity houses are fairly well in hand. Problems of sex morality are also seemingly at a minimum. But we still face a deplorable state of dishonesty in examinations and other exercises on which college credit depends.

There seems to be general agreement that dishonesty is rather prevalent in colleges in the Middle West. From my observations, I feel that it is more prevalent here than it has been in past years.

Student organizations and fraternities have made no real effort to encourage or to insist upon high ideals; for the most part, they have sanctioned and condoned violations of the honor system.

Rumors of cheating make it evident that some means other than leaving it to the individual instructor should be found to deal with the matter.

Such opinions, based on observation and experience, are at best unsatisfactory. Just as no one knows exactly the extent of house-breaking, "holdups," or "bootlegging," so no one can ascertain exactly the extent to which dishonesty permeates college life. Furthermore, little reliance can be placed on the number of individuals who are found guilty of dishonesty and appropriately penalized. If ten students from a student body of three thousand are reported and tried annually for cheating, which seems to be a fair average of general practice, who can say how many cases go undetected or how many cases detected by students or faculty are not reported to the authorities? Ten students tried for cheating may indicate that one in three hundred is dishonest or that one in thirty is dishonest. This exasperating uncertainty as to the actual extent of dishonesty is the unknown element in all discussions relating to the success of any disciplinary program; this same unknown inevitably discounts the enthusiastic affirmations of proponents of honor systems. Suffice it to say here that college committees are aware that, *to some extent*, the human tendency to falsify for credit must be postulated in college life and must be curbed so far as possible for the good of the community.

COLLEGE AGENCIES RESPONSIBLE FOR STUDENT HONOR

Some understanding of the differing opinions about the responsibility for honorable conduct may be gained from a comparative view of disciplinary agencies as maintained by different institutions. Wide divergence of practice prevails. In a few institutions one faculty officer, usually a dean, has complete jurisdiction over cases of alleged dishonesty. He may consult with students, proctors, and heads of departments, but his responsibility is individual and final. Even an appeal from his decision to the president or to the faculty may be lacking. One university says:

All matters of discipline are wholly in the hands of the dean, who has the privilege of calling in advisers if he desires, but in the majority of cases he finds it more satisfactory to handle these disagreeable matters quite by himself.

Certainly student participation is entirely absent in such cases.

More frequently the administration of discipline is assigned to a small faculty group, variously named in different institutions—"Student Affairs Committee," "Honor Committee," "Committee on Conduct in Examinations," "Committee on Dishonesty," and similar titles. However named, such faculty groups in entire charge of student honesty are more generally found than any other agency of control. Here, again, there is no student participation.

A third type of control, while including minor or advisory student participation, firmly retains all investigative and disciplinary power in the hands of the faculty. One college has a "Discipline Committee," composed of three faculty members appointed by the president and two students appointed by the Student Association after consultation with the president. Having advisory power only, the student members do not vote. Faculty discipline committees of other institutions invite student officers, class presidents, and executives of student councils to sit with them in hearings and to give advice but do not permit them to vote. Such cases illustrate the beginnings of student participation. Almost universal testimony is to the effect that this plan is the most comfortable for all concerned, just as the one-man control is the most expeditious.

A considerable number of institutions, conceiving honorable conduct as a joint responsibility, have established disciplinary bodies with nearly equal representation of students and faculty. At Purdue University the committee consists of four faculty representatives appointed annually by the president and two Seniors and one Junior appointed by the Student Council; a faculty member is chairman. In the College of the City of New York the Joint Committee on Discipline, composed of three faculty members appointed by the president and four Seniors chosen by the Student Council, with the dean as chairman, is quite independent, vested with all the powers that would naturally belong to the president and the faculty. Technically, appeal lies from the action of the committee to the faculty. In the University of Washington two organizations handle misdemeanors: (1) the Senior Council (students), which hears cases of violation of the honor code, limited to cheating in laboratory books and in written tests or examinations; (2) the Discipline Committee (faculty), which must approve the decision of the Senior Council be-

fore the penalty goes into effect. Such procedure amounts to trial by a lower and a higher court. A verdict of "not guilty" in the student court generally means final exoneration. Appeals usually are taken only in the case of verdicts of "guilty." However, on occasion, the higher court may reverse even an exoneration by the student court. Somewhat on this order is the honor commission operating in the University of Chicago; it is an experiment in equal representation, indicating joint and mutual responsibility of students and faculty.

Advancing a step toward complete student control is the practice of the University of Minnesota, as stated by E. E. Nicholson, dean of student affairs. There the various colleges have student councils, not strictly self-government associations but rather bodies elected by the students to co-operate with appropriate faculty groups for the betterment of conditions, standards, and ideals. These councils deal with specific cases of cheating or other dishonesty. The student council of one college of the University of Minnesota requested and was granted the right to act with the Faculty Students Work Committee; in joint meeting these two bodies, one of students, one of faculty, hear evidence, discuss evidence, and vote as to the innocence or guilt of the accused. The faculty committee, however, has final jurisdiction in making the penalty official. In another college of the University of Minnesota the student council itself includes as members faculty representatives who are invited by the council to serve (certainly a manifestation of a highly commendable spirit of co-operation). This council has first jurisdiction in dishonesty cases. The faculty members have the right to carry to the Faculty Students Work Committee any case concerning which sharp differences of opinion arise in the student-faculty court of original jurisdiction.

Disciplinary agencies as just described reveal gradually increasing student participation in responsibility for college honor. At the other extreme from the jurisdiction of one faculty officer appear various practices known generally under the title "honor system." Among the larger institutions from which first-hand information is available, Princeton University, Oberlin College, the University of California, and Stanford University place jurisdiction over honorable conduct in the hands of students alone.

The essence of an honor system appears to be (1) the existence of

college traditions concerning honorable conduct; (2) an honor code, written or unwritten; (3) a pledge, signed once only, once each year, or at each major college exercise, the pledge involving both personal honesty, which is easy, and responsibility for reporting dishonesty on the part of other students, which is difficult; (4) elected student officers having complete jurisdiction in trying cases reported by students or faculty or both (the decisions are sometimes subject to review by faculty officers on appeal; faculty confirmation usually makes the penalties official); (5) a system of penalties apparently more severe than faculty officers are inclined to inflict; (6) little or very negligible effort at rehabilitation of offenders; and (7) a vital student sentiment aroused and sustained with each new college generation both by traditions and by effective propaganda. This extreme is the "honor system"—student control with faculty participation practically nil; at the other extreme is faculty control with student participation nil.

EXTENT OF THE HONOR SYSTEM

A survey of 425 institutions made by B. T. Baldwin in 1915 indicated that 123 colleges were using some form of honor system; 101 were operating under the honor system in all departments and 22 in some divisions only.¹ In addition, 44 other colleges reported the honor system operating in spirit if not in form, and 31 were considering its early adoption. In 1925 Mary T. Moore addressed inquiries to 140 institutions represented in the membership of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and received replies from 80 institutions which do not use the honor system, all but 4 of which are located in the North and West.² She received replies from 48 institutions which use the honor system, 19 of which are located in the South.

Most of the large universities included in the present survey are made up of several schools or colleges. While the honor system as such is not generally adopted, the system is frequently operative in

¹ Bird T. Baldwin, *Present Status of the Honor System in Colleges and Universities*. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 8, 1915.

² Mary T. Moore, "The Honor System, Its Extent and Application," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, New Series, No. 1 (July, 1925), pp. 157-72.

one or more of the constituent schools or major departments—for example, in the Department of Architecture of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; in the College of Medicine and the College of Pharmacy of the University of Colorado; in the College of Law, the College of Business, and the College of Agriculture of the University of Minnesota; in the College of Engineering of the University of Michigan; in the Reserve Officers Training Corps of the University of Kentucky; and in the School of Law of the University of Kansas. Evidently these subdivisions and, in fact, the institutions themselves proceed on the principle that the success of the honor system depends on the presence of a compact, homogeneous body of students so vitally interested in self-government that they are willing to give almost unanimous support to the honor sentiment and to the student agencies which promote and protect it.

College officers of departments thus operating unanimously maintain that the success of the honor system depends on the temper of the student body. Dean G. W. Patterson, of the College of Engineering of the University of Michigan, speaks emphatically of the success of the honor system in the college of which he is dean.

In our College, in response to a request from our students, backed by an almost overwhelming sentiment in the student body, we have turned over to them the conduct of examinations, quizzes, and even reports and drawings to be handed in. At the beginning we did not think that a student honor committee would do much better than faculty supervision; but, after letting the committee function for five years, we are of the opinion that matters have been improved greatly, not that they are perfect. Our student committee, very jealous of the department's honor, imposes penalties beyond what our faculty would. It does not give the culprit the benefit of presumption of innocence to the same extent that an older jury might. Whether it would work as well in a non-professional school (where no professional honor is at stake) is something I cannot say.

One institution applies the principle of student initiative and support even more democratically to individual classes, testifying as follows:

The University permits honor sections to be formed on the joint petition of individual instructors and members of sections in their charge. Such permission is granted by the general faculty on the approval of the department concerned, endorsed by the Committee on Student Dishonesty [a joint faculty-student body].

Unfortunately, the hopefulness of this apparently promising plan is mitigated by a disheartening qualification. The testimony goes on to say:

In most cases student members of the Committee on Student Dishonesty have advised against such honor sections, and they are now in force only in the Military Department, where they appear to be operating with a fair degree of satisfaction.

One dean writes:

We have never introduced an honor system here because the students themselves have not desired it.

Another dean reports:

The faculties withdrew the privileges on the students' request but stand ready at any time to renew the honor system should the students themselves wish to state that in their judgment it can successfully be carried out.

The most convincing testimony as to the necessity of practically unanimous student sentiment is the following.

The student body adopted an honor system in 1918 to have exclusive jurisdiction over all cases of dishonesty. A student discipline committee was free to develop methods of procedure and to try all cases. In 1924 the Student Council (the supreme governing board of all student interests) suspended the honor system in all colleges of the University. This suspension was to be lifted in any college which presented a petition bearing the names of 90 per cent of the students enrolled in such school, signifying a desire to abide by the honor pledge. The School of ——— is the only one that has made such a petition.

Another university says:

We were operating under an honor system which seemed to be working successfully in all colleges. Immediately following the war, tremendous disorganization prevailing, some of the colleges previously under the honor system asked that it be abolished as, under the conditions, the students did not feel that it was justified or that it could be carried out successfully.

Another university, where the honor system operates in one college with a compact group of students who have developed a high *esprit de corps* and close individual relations with the faculty, voices the opinion that the honor system would not work successfully in the less homogeneous and far more populous colleges of liberal arts and business administration.

VIEWS FAVORING THE HONOR SYSTEM

Opinions from institutions which have honor systems in full operation are generally, but not always, favorable. The sensible attitude is that a cosmopolitan student body, like any cross section of society, is certain to include some offenders against traditions and even against statute law. Therefore, while the honor system cannot be expected to function perfectly, its results in detecting and punishing offenders are at least as good as the results of a police system maintained by the faculty. Moreover, the honor system is said to have a positive educational effect in building moral fiber, while a police system, fostering an attitude of suspicion between students and faculty, makes cheating a decidedly alluring game.

As to the effectiveness of the honor system, it is certain that there is considerably less cheating than under faculty control. More than that, it is hard to say, for opinion varies as to the amount. Personally, I have never seen, firsthand, a single case in four years. In general, the honor system may not prevent the doings of the "dirty dozen," which every college knows, but it does, it seems to me, help the borderline student who would "fox" a proctor by appealing to his sense of fairness and self-respect. I feel that the root idea underlying the honor system is that students, by virtue of their age, intelligence, and selection, may be trusted to conduct themselves honestly and decently. I am a believer in the honor system.

On the whole, I believe that the honor system is much better than the old method of having the professors in the room. There is less cheating.

ADVERSE VIEWS CONCERNING THE HONOR SYSTEM

The following testimony from ten institutions speaks for itself. It must be remembered that only a few institutions which furnished evidence for this article are advocates of the honor system. Mere preponderance of negative testimony here printed is in itself not prejudicial to the honor system.

In my judgment, the honor system has not been a success. We have allowed students to take their examinations and written exercises with a statement written at the end of the paper that they have given and received no help. This statement has been a mere matter of form. I think that cheating has been more prevalent than when we had the system of supervision.

We have an undergraduate Student Council supposed to administer the honor system; there are no faculty members. The students themselves state very frankly that the Student Council does not enforce the honor system. The council itself now recommends that we return to the system of supervision by faculty members.

Several years ago we had an honor system, but it was an utter failure because students were unwilling to report violations of the code.

At the University of — the honor system was tried and withdrawn at the request of the student body. As they put the matter, they would not "squeal on one another."

The honor system . . . depending solely on the honor of the students . . . existed here for some time but was abandoned . . . because it was such a flat failure. The conclusions concerning its failure were unanimous both among the students and among the faculty.

The results of the honor system are a matter of debate among the faculty members. Last year the question of eliminating the honor code came before the general faculty. They decided to continue it for one year in a somewhat modified form and to ask the Senior Council (students) to make a report of the progress at the end of the academic year, the faculty implying that the status of the honor code was still under question.

The honor system has been tried in some schools of the University but has not proved successful.

The honor system, in force in this institution several years ago, was abandoned because the generation of students which initiated and fostered it with fair success had departed. In their place came new groups of students with less enthusiasm for the honor sentiment and less initiative and vigor in promoting honor, in enforcing the code, and in trying cases. We are now experimenting with a Committee on Student Honor, composed of an equal representation of faculty and student members.

The system broke down because the committee [of students constituting a court] did not have the courage to try the cases of certain prominent students who had been reported for cheating.

An honor system fostered to a large extent by the faculty was introduced here by a majority student vote . . . about ten years ago in all the colleges. It proved a failure and was abolished at the end of the second year by the faculty and without objection on the part of the student body.

Several colleges reported by Miss Moore in 1925 as having the honor system have abandoned it since her inquiry; the reasons given by three are illuminating.

The honor system was abolished by action of the Student Assembly last year, after six years of ineffective operation. The pledge required of students to report on their fellows did not function; we are certain that serious offenses were not brought before the proper officers.

For some time we had had difficulty in securing the proper action from the Honor Council in the matter of reporting cases of infraction of the rules.

The number of violations reported by the students was increasingly small. The reluctance of students to report fellow-students increased from year to year

as the student body grew in enrolment. At the same time there was increasing evidence, largely internal evidence, that cheating in examinations was increasing. It was impossible . . . to arouse among the students any enthusiastic support for the system.

Especially disturbing to one inclined to believe in the honor system is the following testimony of an administrative officer of a well-known college in the Middle West in which the honor system has been in operation for twenty years.

We believe that many serious offenses are not brought before the proper officers. The regulation requiring students to report on their fellows was abandoned last year. I am not sure that we win the support of the faculty members. I do not believe that the system is at all effective.

A similar statement is as follows:

The honor system was in force in this institution until last year. It was dropped after having been in force for fifteen years, because we felt that we were not getting the best results from it. It was dropped at the request of the student body.

Although this imposing array of adverse opinions by no means condemns the honor system, it certainly raises very serious doubts as to its complete efficiency. The doubts concern the willingness of students to report on their fellows, the impartiality and fairness of student courts, and the difficulty of sustaining student sentiment after the first flush of enthusiasm which initiates democratic procedure. However, a reader of the foregoing testimony discerns at once that the interest of the witnesses seems to concern mainly the *adequate detection and punishment of offenses*. Seemingly overlooked are certain more important purposes of disciplinary agencies, namely, the *prevention* of dishonesty, the active *promotion* of honorable conduct, and, whenever possible, the *rehabilitation* of offenders. It is true that a poorly supported, inefficiently functioning student honor system, while maintaining the outward appearance of promoting honor, may in reality disseminate dishonor. On the contrary, it is equally true that a strict faculty police system may prevent and punish cheating but do little to develop moral fiber. Certainly, a strict penal code does little to rehabilitate offenders.

In the face of such uncertainties, the statements of two deans of large state universities are worthy of careful consideration. These men, who have had experience with the honor system and with joint faculty-student control, say:

My personal opinion is that the Senior Council (in charge of the honor system) is worth while chiefly because it has educational value and is something on which we can build in the direction of good citizenship. The only substitute is a kind of proctor system in which members of the faculty police the rooms. We have no facts which show that any better results are achieved by this process than by the operation of the honor code. This is not saying a great deal for the honor code. It merely makes the honor code, in my opinion, somewhat the better of the two systems.

I do not believe that the proctor system carries with it the development of individual honor so much as the honor system, which places responsibility squarely on the individual student. I would rate the efficiency as between the two merely from the standpoint of actual reduction of dishonesty as say 95 per cent efficiency for the proctor system and 80 per cent to possibly 90 per cent under an honor system, one obtaining results by using police, and the other obtaining results by desire for respect of fellow-students, the latter, of course, being the one which makes for better citizenship.

Student responsibility as an element in character-building is vigorously stressed by the Student Committee of Seventeen, of Purdue University, which recently submitted a report to the president of that university with reference to undergraduate life. It says:

The Student Council is generally recognized as a feeble and futile organization. This is in spite of the fact that it is the organization that represents student self-government. The chief weakness of the council seems to lie in the fact that it has no power to do more than to suggest and to recommend. Representatives of the faculty assert that the council is not given more power because it has never successfully accepted the responsibility it already possesses; and that, when the council or any other group representing the student body shows itself capable, more power will be granted to it. Perhaps a great part of the trouble lies with the students composing the council. In the past most persons have sought membership on it more for what honor there was connected with it than for any real interest or aptitude they possessed for student government. Evidently this situation will continue until the student body develops a desire for self-government and elects men to the council who will achieve that. It is impossible to give the students any great amount of responsibility until they are ready and anxious to assume it. The faculty can break this vicious circle, however, by their advice and counsel in developing a sense of responsibility in the student, and the committee believes that upon this depends to a large extent the solution of the problem. However, if the council enjoyed a little more power and a little more responsibility than at present, it would aid materially in the development of a sense of responsibility.¹

¹ *The Report of the Student Committee of Seventeen*, pp. 30-31. *Studies in Higher Education*, VI. Bulletin of Purdue University, Vol. XXVII, No. 7 (December, 1926).

PRECAUTIONS IN CONDUCTING EXAMINATIONS

With something of relief, one turns from such diverse testimony, from the many uncertainties and unknowns of honor systems, to the more definite practices prevalent in safeguarding conduct during examinations. Consideration turns about three items—the wording of questions, proctoring, and the seating of students.

Well-nigh universal is the practice of mimeographing or printing examination questions for large classes. This device, often optional with instructors, is usually not adopted in small sections. Several colleges speak vigorously of precautions that must be taken. "Confidence in the printing concern must be absolute"—a frequent statement, suggesting by its repetition untoward experiences in the past. A theft of examination questions was reported in the papers of January 31, 1927. Far more imperative than any such mechanical device is the use of plain common sense by instructors who give examinations. Obviously, questions calling for one-word answers, like the name of a man, or a mineral, or a poem, the questions given orally in a crowded room, put a premium on glimpses at the papers of other students and even on gently whispered communications. Strange to relate, such examinations are not uncommon. Departmental conferences and supervision may tend to eliminate such reprehensible carelessness and may lay stress on various types of "open-book questions," which require of students a minimum of mere information and a maximum of independent thinking.

Proctoring examinations may be dismissed very quickly. Except under honor systems, in some of which the instructor must leave the room, in most of which he may be present to preserve order and to give legitimate help, adequate proctoring is the rule. One extreme provides "a proctor for every fifty men"; such paid officers are usually graduate students, who march up and down the aisles, deliberately watching every student. This prevents dishonesty as completely as is humanly possible. Then comes the more general practice—the instructor and sometimes one or more assistants in the room, quietly but not ostentatiously observing the students' conduct. Finally, there is the presence in the examination room of the instructor only, who observes students as he wishes.

Unfortunately, an unknown percentage of college instructors take the position that the honesty of students is not their concern; they think of themselves as inculcators of knowledge and developers of power; the safeguarding of honor and the building of character are not their business. At least, it may be said that examinations under such men certainly cannot be reliable evidence in awarding scholarship honors. Again, the practice, all too common, of leaving the conduct of examinations to young and untried assistants, is fraught with dangers. One dean testifies:

The Discipline Committee very often finds that the instructional force is somewhat to blame in not preventing dishonesty in examinations. Young instructors are prone to permit talking and copying to continue when these might be averted by warning and strict discipline.

When requested by disciplinary committees to take moderate precautions in conducting examinations, some instructors have been known to read the notice to a class, publicly tear up the paper, and assert that they, at least, will not subject their students to an insult. The harmful effect of such conduct is incalculable; certainly it is undemocratic and unprofessional, especially when the majority of the faculty believes that student conduct must be supervised. Whether adequate proctoring is an insult to students may, of course, be subject to differences of opinion. The best statement of authority on this subject comes from Carl W. Onthank, executive secretary of the University of Oregon. He says:

Some students take the ground, wholly fallacious it seems to me, that having a proctor in the room suggests a distrust of all students present. That is no more true than that the presence of a policeman on the corner suggests that all who pass by are potential thieves. Organizing examinations so that a student is not exposed to any temptation is protection to the honest . . . students rather than an insult to them, protection not only from temptation but also from unfair advantage which may be taken of them by dishonest students.

A third commonly used precaution concerns the seating of students during examinations. Alternate seating, minimizing the temptation to glance at a neighbor's paper, is very generally practiced. Some institutions insist on such arrangements by university regulations. In other institutions the students themselves request such provisions. In some universities examinations are conducted in gymnasiums or in large halls, under the head proctorship of a professor

appointed for the service, many classes writing simultaneously but no two members of the same class in adjoining seats. Students generally do not resent such precautions; indeed, some student bodies desire them.

Testimony as to the effectiveness of various precautions, or all of them, is not very optimistic. One dean writes:

Some instructors use alternate seating; some mingle classes in some fashion so that all seats will be filled. Some classes are very heavily proctored; others have only the instructor present; still others take examinations under the honor system with the instructor absent. Printed or mimeographed questions are always used. . . . *I do not believe* any of the methods are very successful.

Another dean says:

These precautions do not, of course, eliminate cheating, but they tend to make it difficult and to minimize temptation, which comes so often to the student who is faced with the danger of failing and thereby bringing disgrace to himself and his family, as well as of entailing failure of initiation into his fraternity. Such a student is often reduced almost to desperation, and, if any opportunity occurs, will do things which under less emotional stress would never occur to him or from which he would recoil.

One college which reports a most elaborate program of supervising examinations, including seating, printing of questions, and proctoring, testifies:

These regulations are effective in some degree, but by no means do they prevent dishonesty.

Another college says:

It must be admitted, of course, that measures to safeguard conduct during examinations are in the final analysis negative rather than positive, although they may have very definite values. A constructive program toward stimulating positive ideals of honesty has a better moral justification than the mere organizing of examination honor procedure.

OFFENSES AND PENALTIES

In fairness to all students, disciplinary committees attempt to be consistent, meting out approximately the same penalties for identical types of dishonesty. Moreover, justice always distinguishes between premeditated cheating and casual offenses committed under the impulse of the moment. Minor penalties are imposed for indiscretion, bad judgment, and suspicious actions with little apparent in-

tention to cheat. The age of the accused, the degree of temptation, and the inadequacy of safeguarding methods, for which instructors are responsible, are considered. Students are severely punished for flagrant offenses, such as using "cribs," or "ponies," and submitting written exercises borrowed bodily from uncredited sources. Some institutions are very severe, punishing students for dishonesty in final examinations by unqualified expulsion. It is safe to say that this extreme penalty always presupposes adequate warning through preliminary publicity and is not often imposed. Second offenses invariably result in heavy punishments. Of course, under a strict honor system, there can logically be no second offense. The honor committee of one college has taken the position that students must avoid even the appearance of cheating and has imposed penalties on students whose behavior was suspicious although there was no evidence that cheating had actually occurred.

Penalties of increasing severity are about as follows: (1) a warning and reprimand by some officer; (2) a second examination if the proctor or instructor so recommends; (3) dismissal from the course; (4) loss of credit in the course; (5) loss of credit in all courses for the semester; (6) the imposition of additional credits for graduation; (7) probation for a period of time in keeping with the seriousness of the offense; (8) suspension from college life, ranging from one semester to a year; (9) expulsion; (10) various combinations of the less severe penalties.

All disciplinary measures are accompanied by suitable records, usually on the student's office card or grade chart. Parents or guardians are almost always notified.

A safe generalization seems to be that desirable disciplinary measures consider the ultimate good of the offender, an effort being made to deal as remedially with him as the nature of his error and the welfare of the college society as a whole will permit. Some institutions endeavor to give students who have been disciplined for dishonesty a chance to work out their own salvation. In this connection it is pertinent to recall the testimony of one college which operates under the honor system to the effect that student officers, jealously guarding their honor code, are inclined to be more severe with offenders than are faculty groups.

One correspondent writes:

One of the main difficulties in the matter of penalties is avoiding having them reach farther than the Disciplinary Committee intends. For instance, a student taking the premedical course, or any course leading to professional work, may, by having a record of penalty for some comparatively minor error, be embarrassed seriously in his subsequent application for admission to the professional school. Similar penalties, when they get into the University records, are often much more far-reaching than anyone expects when they are imposed. This, of course, is important for students as well as discipline committees to know.

Another college, believing that written records of penalties may be of lasting harm to students, follows a procedure worthy of the highest respect.

All written evidence, all correspondence and the statement of the Honor Committee's action which is sent to the dean and by him forwarded to the registrar, is placed in a special envelope by the registrar. This envelope is sealed, marked with the student's name, and filed until such time as he may apply to have his record cleared. If his application is granted, the envelope and its contents are handed to him to dispose of as he pleases.

PUBLICITY GIVEN TO CASES

Every possible precaution is taken to avoid needless publicity. Even in the report of the committee to the faculty no mention of names is made, merely the number and the nature of the case and the penalty prescribed.

Publicity is definitely and systematically employed as a penalty. In most cases it is used; only occasionally and for a special reason is the judgment of the committee [dean, chairman; three faculty members; four Seniors] not made public. The publication is on the regular bulletin board of the committee.

These statements represent extremes of practice with regard to publicity. In the hope of helping the offender rehabilitate himself in his own esteem, some institutions refrain from publicly stigmatizing him as dishonest. Other institutions, especially those which have the honor system, employ publicity as an essential part of the punishment, except in the case of minor offenses. A few colleges which seem to have been experiencing a wave of cheating since the war are seriously considering publicity as a penalty. Between these extremes by far the majority of institutions guide their way. In such instances publicity by name is limited to reports made to the faculty; publicity of any sort is limited to periodic statements in the college

paper announcing that certain offenses have been committed and penalties prescribed. Time is allowed to elapse between the offense and the announcement in order to prevent identification of the individual.

One danger is always present. Disciplinary officers and committees are likely to allow their procedure to become so formalized that they do not realize the effects of their acts. To compel an undergraduate to appear before a disciplinary body, whether of students alone, of faculty alone, or of both together, is no light punishment. A summons for a reprimand is similar. The physical and spiritual shrinking by all but the most hardened in such an ordeal is indicative of terrific strain. The danger is that infliction of penalties by formula may disregard the physical, social, and moral welfare of the offender—certainly not a desirable action for an educational institution. After all, colleges should not follow procedures which would be of doubtful justification even in a penitentiary.

PROMOTING HONOR SENTIMENTS

Many of the correspondents whose assistance has made possible the present statements are themselves earnestly seeking help concerning the most difficult as well as the most important phase of the entire problem. How shall *any* honor officer or committee build up an honor sentiment throughout a university community? How shall the indifference or opposition of faculty members be met? How shall a cosmopolitan student body be lifted above the unscrupulous practices of the general run of society?

Regrettable indeed is the universal testimony as to the relative inefficiency of most methods. Very general statements represent the practices of most institutions.

We try to promote the sentiment of honor through the various departments and through officers of administration.

We have no special method. It is traditional at —— College to expect the highest type of honor among our students.

No practical progress has been made in promoting the honor sentiment. Nearly every year the question comes up and is discussed pro and con by the students, but little progress has been made.

Similarly run all the comments. The truth is that in most instances nothing of value is being accomplished.

Some specific devices, used singly or in various combinations, are reported. In order of increasing promise of real effectiveness, they may be named as follows:

TALKS

Always there are numerous talks at the beginning of the year to new students by older students explaining the honor sentiment, urging them to adopt it and assist in its development.

The matter of honesty in class work is brought before the entire student body several times a year by student representatives.

Mass meetings and class meetings are held for discussion after the biannual presentation in assembly by the president of the University or some other officer.

Guidance in the honor sentiment is especially stressed during Freshman Week by prominent faculty and student representatives.

NEWS ITEMS

The daily student papers frequently carry write-ups and editorials.

Student publications are active proponents of the honor sentiment, especially during the years when the editorial leadership is vigorous and progressive.

PLEDGES

Some colleges which have dropped the honor system still retain the pledge, a practice of very doubtful value. As indicated in an earlier paragraph, a rigorous pledge is essential in an honor system. One college for women writes that all students are required to sign the pledge each year and are at liberty to attend college elsewhere if they are unwilling to sign. The pledge is as follows:

I promise to support the Honor Code and to make the spirit of it a guiding principle of my college life.

Princeton's pledge must be written in full at all times and signed by the student. It is as follows:

I pledge my honor as a gentleman that, during this examination, I have neither given nor received assistance.

CODES

Student handbooks invariably carry terse expositions of the honor sentiment. A typical statement is quoted from the student handbook of the University of California.

The existence of student self-government is made possible by the development among the student body of a community conscience known as the Honor Spirit. This spirit is our most cherished tradition and is inspired by the high ideals of truth upon which a university must always rest. In regard to the classroom it stands for the intolerance by students of the giving and the receiving of aid during examinations and the dishonesty of any act whatsoever which may affect the character of a student's academic work. In daily campus life it signifies that the moral behavior of University students must be above reproach.

It would be wrong to assert that all students in so large a community abide faithfully by the Honor Spirit. A few persons are always found who are morally too weak to be worthy of the trust placed upon them, and these offenders are turned over to the Student Affairs Committee for punishment. This committee is composed entirely of students and is permitted to punish offenders by expulsion from the University, loss of credit, probation, or other sentences which apply to the case under consideration. Loyal members of the student body are zealously on watch to see to it that none of their fellow-students violate the trust which the Honor Spirit imposes upon all men and women who enter the University.

GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Best of all positive means of spreading the honor sentiment appear to be the discussion groups in fraternity houses, dormitories, Christian associations, and the like. This method seems to be dependent on securing the co-operation of influential faculty members. Even such excellent procedure can reach only a comparatively small portion of the student body.

Amid all the uncertainties and the inefficiencies, there are, of course, many hopeful signs. The outstanding element is that all institutions are realizing the need of character-building. Certainly college graduates of vocational and professional proficiency but of deficient character may harm society to an incalculable degree. The assertion attributed, perhaps wrongly, to Theodore Roosevelt, who was speaking figuratively, of course, is none the less challenging: "I never in my life unearthed any great public wrong that I did not find at the bottom of it the brains of a —— graduate." Realizing the need of character-training, many institutions are feeling their way slowly toward a suitable solution. The tendency is toward co-operative endeavor, making decent and honorable conduct a joint responsibility of students and faculty.

THE SOCIAL EXPERIENCE OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS. II

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PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

After making a survey of the organized groups in the school, outside the school, and in the business community in which pupils have opportunity to obtain experience in social living, the next step in our investigation is to ascertain the degree to which pupils take

TABLE IV
PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN VOLUNTARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils Who Are Members	Average Number of Memberships per Member	Percentage of Pupils Who Are Officers	Average Number of Offices per Officer
Grade VII:					
Boys.....	161	70	1.8	13	1.4
Girls.....	175	88	2.9	16	1.2
Boys and girls.....	336	79	2.7	15	1.2
Grade VIII:					
Boys.....	107	84	2.1	22	1.2
Girls.....	145	94	2.5	25	1.6
Boys and girls.....	252	89	2.3	23	1.4
Grade IX:					
Boys.....	114	42	1.6	18	1.6
Girls.....	129	49	1.7	14	1.9
Boys and girls.....	243	46	1.6	16	1.7
Grades VII-IX:					
Boys and girls.....	831	73	2.4	18	1.4

advantage of the opportunities which lie before them. Table IV shows the extent of pupil participation in the voluntary organizations of the school. The reader should be reminded that the participation which is shown in this table does not include membership in the core organizations of the school, which were described in Part I of this article. All official positions in the school, however,

including those of the core organizations, are counted in the last two columns of the table.

The first outstanding fact to which attention should be directed is that almost three-fourths (73 per cent) of the pupils are members of a voluntary organization of some kind. This fact is evidence of a varied and attractive program of social opportunities. On the other hand, 27 per cent of the pupils are not members of any voluntary organization in the school. The next outstanding fact is that the average number of memberships per pupil is 2.4. The meaning of this fact is that pupils who join one club tend to join others. Apparently, it is a matter of getting started. A larger proportion of eighth-grade pupils (89 per cent) than of seventh-grade pupils (79 per cent) are taking advantage of their opportunities. There is a sharp and astonishing drop in the proportion of participators in the ninth grade (46 per cent).

Eighteen per cent of the pupils are being trained as officers of organized societies. Here again there is a larger proportion of eighth-grade pupils (23 per cent) than of seventh-grade pupils (15 per cent), and again we find an astonishing drop in the case of the ninth-grade pupils (16 per cent). A second view of the marked aptitude of the eighth-grade pupils for holding office and of the equally marked lack of outstanding aggressiveness on the part of the ninth grade is presented in Table V. The eighth grade includes only 30.3 per cent of the student body, but it holds 39.9 per cent of the offices of the school. The ninth grade includes 29.2 per cent of the student body, but it holds only 30.9 per cent of the offices. The reader should be reminded that the figures here presented apply to the first semester of the school year 1925-26 only and that during the next semester, as well as during the later years of their school careers, decidedly greater proportions of the pupils will have the experience of serving as officers. Table IV shows that greater percentages of girls than of boys are being trained as members and officers of the school organizations. The only case where the percentage of boys exceeds the percentage of girls is in the record of the officers in the ninth grade.

The comparatively small percentages of boys who are attracted to the school's organizations, both as members and as officers (Table

V), as compared with the percentages of girls may be accounted for in part by the fact that the boys are taking advantage of a greater variety of substantial opportunities in the extra-school organizations and in the business world. One can easily understand how a greater percentage of eighth-grade pupils than of seventh-grade pupils are participating, but it is difficult to explain the marked falling off in ninth-grade participation. The situation is unfortunate for the pupils, in that they are not taking advantage of their last opportunity to obtain social experience in the junior high school, and unfortunate for the school in that full advantage is not being taken of the greater experience and maturity of the senior class.

TABLE V

PERCENTAGES OF OFFICES IN SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS HELD BY BOYS AND BY GIRLS IN THE SEVERAL GRADES AS COMPARED WITH THE PERCENTAGES OF BOYS AND GIRLS

GRADE	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS AND GIRLS	
	Percentage of Total Number of Offices Held	Percentage of Total Number of Pupils	Percentage of Total Number of Offices Held	Percentage of Total Number of Pupils	Percentage of Total Number of Offices Held	Percentage of Total Number of Pupils
VII.....	12.6	19.4	16.9	21.2	29.5	40.6
VIII.....	14.0	12.9	25.9	17.4	39.9	30.3
IX.....	14.5	13.7	16.4	15.5	30.9	29.2
Total ..	41.1	46.0	59.2	54.1	100.3	100.1

The foregoing facts point out problems which should be given careful attention by the faculty and the student council. A systematic, sustained, and intensive annual campaign for members on the part of the home rooms, the three class organizations, the student council, and the various clubs might induce greater proportions of the student body to avail themselves of valuable social opportunities. The ninth-grade situation might be remedied by increasing the size of the council, the orchestra, the Masquers, and the newspaper groups and by including additional organizations, such as a bank and an honor society. Greater numbers of officers might be trained each year by reducing the term of office in some of the organizations to one semester. It might be worth while for the home-room advisers to consider the expediency of a more thorough canvass

of the social activities of the members of their rooms and to consider means of encouraging certain pupils to take greater part in the school organizations.

PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN EXTRA-SCHOOL
ORGANIZATIONS AND IN BUSINESS

Participation in extra-school organizations.—A summary of the facts concerning the participation of pupils in extra-school organizations is presented in Table VI. The last line of the table shows that

TABLE VI
PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN EXTRA-SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS

	Number of Pupils	Percentage of Pupils Who Are Members	Average Number of Memberships per Member	Percentage of Pupils Who Are Officers	Average Number of Offices per Officer
Grade VII:					
Boys.....	161	95	2.4	26	1.2
Girls.....	175	98	2.1	30	1.4
Boys and girls.....	336	96	2.2	28	1.3
Grade VIII:					
Boys.....	107	94	2.5	45	1.4
Girls.....	145	96	2.1	42	1.4
Boys and girls.....	252	95	2.3	43	1.4
Grade IX:					
Boys.....	114	100	2.1	40	1.2
Girls.....	129	98	2.3	49	1.5
Boys and girls.....	243	99	2.2	44	1.4
Grades VII-IX:					
Boys and girls.....	831	96	2.3	38	1.3

96 per cent of the pupils belong to at least one extra-school organization. The pupils tend to join more than one organization (average 2.3), that is, the Sunday school and one or two others. Thirty-eight per cent of the pupils are serving as officers in extra-school organizations, and many of them hold more than one office. It should be noted that twice as great a percentage of the pupil population is being trained in official capacities in the extra-school organizations as in the school organizations. These figures give evidence of a large volume of participation in out-of-school groups and emphasize the tremendous significance to the school population of the extra-school agencies.

Differences between the sexes with respect either to membership

or to the number of offices held are neither marked nor consistent except in the ninth grade, where the girls appear to be more active than the boys in holding office. It is significant that the percentage of pupils holding office increases with the grades, beginning with 28 in the seventh grade and reaching 43 in the eighth grade and 44 in the ninth grade. For some reason the greater maturity of the senior class makes itself felt more decisively in the outside organizations than in the school organizations. Is it possible that one factor to account for this situation is a greater segregation of pupils according to grade in the school organizations?

Participation in business.—Data concerning the extent of the participation of pupils in business are presented in Table VII. Only

TABLE VII
PARTICIPATION OF PUPILS IN BUSINESS

	GRADE VII		GRADE VIII		GRADE IX	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Percentage of pupils in business.	46	6	36	4	53	6
Average number of business contacts per pupil in business.	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.0

a very small percentage of the girls in each grade are earning money. Among the boys, the greatest percentage of workers (53 per cent) is found in the ninth grade, where the pupils are older and nearer to the time when they will leave school for permanent employment. A decidedly greater percentage of seventh-grade boys than of eighth-grade boys are at work. It will be remembered that decidedly larger proportions of the eighth-grade pupils are participating in the school organizations, and the eighth grade has a strikingly large proportion of officers in the extra-school organizations. The ninth grade is surprisingly weak with respect to these forms of participation. The observer may therefore reasonably conclude that extensive participation in any one of the three main groups of organizations, namely, those in the school, those outside the school, and business contacts, may tend to limit the amount of participation in other groups of organizations. The second line of Table VII shows that several of the boys hold more than one job. This is a factor in the life of a pupil that may lead to neglect of school work and of school

organizations and should be given careful consideration by the school advisers in order that remedial measures may be taken wherever necessary. With this object in view, several schools have found it helpful to organize one or more clubs for employed boys so that these busy youngsters may be the better supervised in their social experiences and encouraged to distribute their time in such a way as to neglect none of their duties.

An examination of the participation records of the working girls revealed the fact that seven of the employed girls of the ninth grade and two of the employed girls of the seventh grade belong to no school organizations except their class and home-room groups. Five of the six working girls of the eighth grade, however, belong to other school organizations. These facts suggest the desirability of special attention on the part of the school to the social training of working girls.

SUPERVISION OF PUPIL PARTICIPATION

The total amount of pupil participation.—The total amount of participation on the part of the pupils in the Alexander Graham Junior High School in all kinds of organizations is large. The average boy or girl is a member of 4.17 social groups in addition to the core organizations of the school. For the most part, pupils are members of organizations outside the school as well as within the school, and approximately one-half of the boys are in contact with business in addition. This impressive amount of participation per pupil is probably excessive in but few cases, because the kinds of interest to which appeals are made by the different organizations vary widely and the demands for time on the part of the organizations are distributed broadly throughout the waking hours of the day and all the days of the week. Many of the organizations hold brief meetings for which but little or but occasional preparation need be made. The result is that the individual pupil finds it convenient and practicable to express his social interests in a variety of ways.

Attention to the cases of exceptional pupils.—The immediately preceding statements are based on average figures, and, although they apply to the majority of the pupils, it is necessary to give some attention to the cases of pupils who participate too little and to the cases of pupils who participate too extensively. A few pupils, practically all of whom are girls, report that they do not belong to any

but the core organizations. A larger number of the pupils belong only to the Sunday school or the Y.M.C.A. or have business contacts only. The tendency is observable on the part of some pupils who are decidedly over-age for their grades to participate in less than the average number of organizations. In many of these cases the situation may best be left by the school as it is. On the other hand, the school intends to give as much social experience as is desirable to all the pupils, and, in order to make certain that this is being done, it should give special attention to the social activities of all types of pupils.

A different kind of situation is encountered in the cases of pupils who participate in a large number of organizations and who hold several official positions in these organizations. The activities of four such pupils are as follows:

Seventh-grade boy (fourteen years old):

President of home room; vice-president of seventh-grade organization; president of Health Crusaders Club; member of Glee, Current Events, and Biography clubs and of ball team

Member of Sunday-school class, Young People's Society, and Y.M.C.A.

Soda clerk, earning from \$5.00 to \$10.00 a week

Ninth-grade boy (fifteen years old):

President of home room, vice-president of Hi-Y, manager of basket-ball team, member of student council

Member of Sunday-school class, Y.M.C.A., Y. Bible class, Young People's Society, Boy Scouts, and swimming team

Works in shoe store for \$3.50 a week

Eighth-grade girl (thirteen years old):

President of home room; member of executive committee of student council; secretary-treasurer of eighth-grade organization; society editor of the *Broadcaster*; member of Latin, Mathematics, and Science clubs

President of Sunday-school class, president of Cliquot Club, secretary of Fun Lovers' Club, member of Agnes Wilson and Daisy Chain societies

Ninth-grade girl (fifteen years old):

President of home room, president of Masquers, editor of the *Broadcaster*, member of student council, house manager of dramatic class

President of Sunday-school class; secretary of Myers Park Club; member of Young People's Society, W.C.T.U., Junior Observers, and Card and Music clubs

These pupils are members of from ten to twelve organizations and are officers in several organizations; in addition, the two

boys are employed. In not a few instances pupils with unusual energy and social gifts are able to acquit themselves creditably of numerous responsibilities of this kind. On the other hand, it is desirable to distribute the offices of the organizations in such a way as to give the training that attaches to these offices to as large a proportion of the more capable pupils as possible. The school has made an excellent beginning of the task of regulating extensive participation by the informal adoption of a plan which prevents any pupil from holding more than one major office in the school organizations or more than two minor offices. Pupils may hold one major office and two minor offices at the same time, however. It would probably be wise for the faculty and the student council to work out a more elaborate and more formal plan for the guidance of teacher advisers and pupils alike. Such a plan ought to be presented to the student body and be formally adopted by it.

Records of pupil participation.—To the experienced principal and teacher it is obvious that the recommendations which have been made concerning the supervision of the social experience of pupils as individuals cannot be carried out in a satisfactory way without the aid of an adequate system of records. The record cards in use at the Alexander Graham Junior High School provide several spaces for data regarding the extra-curriculum activities of the pupil. On the teacher's annual record card and on the permanent record card, space is provided for listing the organizations with which the pupil has been identified. A second division of the teacher's card is for estimates of the pupil's ability, effort, and dependability. On both cards lines are reserved for entries concerning work outside of school hours. Neither of the cards, however, takes notice of membership in extra-school organizations, except the Red Cross and the Boy Scouts, nor of official positions in any organization. No space is provided for comment on the degree of skill with which the pupil fulfils his responsibilities.

The teacher's card is for the use of the teacher as home-room adviser. The permanent record cards are sent with the pupils to the senior high school. In the latter institution, these cards are used frequently to discover, at the beginning of their careers, pupils possessed of skill and training in some special field, such as dramatics or

newspaper work. More elaborate records than those now kept would be helpful if the school finds it expedient to adopt some of the recommendations which have been made in this report. With this possible outcome in view, it would be worth while for several especially interested home-room teachers to devise a more elaborate social-experience card for experimental use and to keep records of the activities of the pupils throughout the year.

THE LOAD OF THE TEACHER ADVISERS

In not a few schools the pupil organizations fail to a great extent to produce the educational values which lie in them because the entire burden of supervising them is added to an already well-filled teaching schedule. Teachers who are responsible for the most active organizations often do not possess sufficient additional energy to direct their work in an efficient way. Under such circumstances, teachers feel that they have been imposed on and the work of the organizations is allowed to languish. The teaching day of the Alexander Graham Junior High School, from 8:45 A.M. to 2:45 P.M., is comparatively short, and the allotment of thirty minutes a day in the regular time schedule, with the possibility of extending this period by fifteen minutes when desirable, enables most of the teachers to complete their advisory work during the school day.

The principal of the school has made a commendable effort to distribute the advisory load in an equitable manner throughout the teaching staff. Teachers who are responsible for the largest numbers of organizations supervise recitation groups that meet as clubs in the regular class periods. Teachers who are responsible for the most active groups have assistant advisers to help them, are relieved of home-room adviserships, or are enabled to carry on their work in classes for credit during class hours, as is the case with the orchestra. The few teachers who have no responsibility for pupil organizations are either heads of departments with administrative duties or teachers new to the school who have not yet discovered the advisory responsibilities for which they are best fitted. Under these circumstances, it appears that advisory burdens fall with excessive weight on few, if any, teachers in this school, and the teachers have a real opportunity to give efficient leadership to the pupil groups committed to their care.

A SCORE CARD FOR JUDGING THE RECITATION

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The score card shown on pages 282-83 has been prepared for the purpose of supervising teaching, not teachers. Moreover, this card has been prepared for the purpose of supervising only one kind of recitation, namely, the question-and-answer type. It is in the personal interview that the supervisor feels the need of definite data on which to base his statements. Generalities merely create differences of opinion. In discussing teacher problems, the supervisor should avail himself of every opportunity to supplant mere generalities with specific facts. Along with standard tests and experimental studies, schemes for rating the teacher and judging the recitation will go far toward supplying these facts to the supervisor.

The purpose of this score sheet is not so much to obtain a rating of the individual teachers as to supervise and aid actual classroom teaching. This phase is too often neglected in the secondary schools of today. We assume that high-school teachers are specialists in their particular fields and consequently need no supervision or assistance. Some school authorities have even gone so far as to consider it a mark of weakness on the part of high-school teachers if they ask for assistance along this line. With these facts in mind, the writer has attempted to formulate a series of questions which can be checked by the principal or supervisor during his visit to the classroom; these questions can be checked in duplicate and one copy left with the teacher, who should consider it as a basis for a conference with the principal, later the same day if possible. In fact, the score sheet should be taken up at one of the first teachers' meetings of the year and discussed with the teachers, in order that they may become familiar with it and be able to use it as a self-improving device.

A supervisor who is visiting a classroom needs to have definitely in mind and definitely outlined the essential features of a well-con-

SCORE CARD FOR JUDGING THE RECITATION

	Yes	No
A. Economy of time		
1. In convening class		
2. In dismissing on time		
3. In eliminating unnecessary talking on part of pupils		
4. In eliminating unnecessary talking on part of teacher		
5. In having devices ready		
6. In avoiding use of ill-adapted devices		
7. In avoiding repetition of pupils' answers		
8. In administering discipline		
B. Conduct of recitation		
1. Material for recitation		
a) Within pupils' comprehension		
b) Worth while		
c) Show some independence of text		
2. Teacher's questions		
a) Well distributed		
b) Put to group		
c) Adapted to lesson		
d) Lacking suggestion of answer		
e) Clear		
f) Show teacher preparation		
3. Response of pupils		
a) Sentence responses		
b) Did pupils ask thought-provoking questions?		
c) Did pupils seem well grounded in previous work?		
d) Did pupils persist in getting desired results?		
e) Were responses distinct?		
f) Did pupils co-operate with classmates?		
4. Teaching		
a) Has it a definite aim?		
b) Does it stimulate initiative of pupils?		

SCORE CARD FOR JUDGING THE RECITATION—*Continued*

	Yes	No
4. Teaching— <i>Continued</i>		
c) Does it make practical application of material?		
d) Does it require pupils to organize material?		
e) Does it require co-operation of pupils with teacher?		
f) Were pupils held accountable for preparation?		
g) Did teacher avoid interrupting pupils' recitations?		
5. Use of English		
a) Did teacher use good English?		
b) Did pupils use good English?		
C. Assignment, if given		
1. Definite		
2. Motivating		
3. Such that pupils were prepared to attack it intelligently		

ducted recitation. He must observe carefully the method of procedure. Supervisors are frequently criticized for taking notes when in the classroom. This is often necessary if the supervisor is to recall the plan of the work in detail. The supervisor who spends most of his time writing during the development of the lesson will lose many important points. The ideal plan is to make as few notes as are necessary to recall the procedure. After leaving the classroom, the supervisor may write out fully his impressions. Hence, all the questions in this score sheet have been cast into such a form that they may be answered merely by "Yes" or "No." All the supervisor need do is to check in the proper column and then later make any notes which he may deem advisable for his conference with the teacher. It is believed that this procedure will serve the double purpose of enabling the supervisor to have in mind what he is looking for in the recitation and of economizing his time so that he may devote a maximum amount of time to observing the development of the lesson.

Three points are considered of major importance in judging the recitation, namely, (1) the economy of time, as shown by the replies

to the eight questions under this heading; (2) the conduct of the recitation—material for recitation, teacher's questions, responses of the pupils, teaching, and use of English; and (3) the assignment. Definite questions are asked under each of these headings for the purpose of bringing out the supervisor's judgment on each as related to the whole recitation. It will be noted that each check in the "Yes" column is a favorable criticism of the teaching, while each check in the "No" column is an adverse criticism. No attempt is made to evaluate the individual questions or answers, as it is not the purpose of the score card to rate the teacher but rather to supervise the actual progress of the recitation. It will be evident to the observer that the answers to the questions will have to depend somewhat on the frequency of practice. To illustrate, let us take Question *b* under the topic "Teacher's questions"—Were the teacher's questions put to the group? The answer to this would be determined by the majority of the teacher's questions. If most of the questions were put to the class as a whole rather than addressed to individual pupils, then the question would be checked "Yes." The common sense of the supervisor will play a prominent part here, as it will not be necessary actually to tabulate each question asked by the teacher. The same principle will apply to a considerable number of the questions asked.

It is not believed necessary to explain each question here. The actual meaning and purpose of practically all the questions will be evident to the average teacher. However, it might be well to add a word with respect to a few of them. Question *c* under B₂—Were the teacher's questions adapted to the lesson?—has reference to the type of questions that are thought-provoking and to those that merely call for facts. In certain recitations the first of these types may be desirable, while in others the second type may be the one to use. The question is so framed that it allows freedom on the part of the supervisor in reaching a decision.

Question *c* under B₁—Does the material for the recitation show some independence of the text?—is designed to bring out the writer's view that scarcely ever is it justifiable to have a recitation in which the material is confined entirely to the text. The teacher's knowledge of her subject should be at least a little broader than the text. If the teacher's information extends beyond the text and if the work

is prepared and outlined accordingly, the recitation will be of much greater value and interest to the pupils. In addition, this procedure will serve as a model method of preparation for the pupils. While it is not believed necessary to illustrate and explain each of the items on the card, it is thought that each question covers a vital and important part of the technique of the good recitation.

The outline calls for judgment on the assignment, if given. It is recognized that it is not always necessary or possible to make an assignment during each recitation. In fact, the assignment may previously have been made for several days and so covers the lesson following the recitation observed. However, when the assignment is given, it should be observed very closely as it is one of the most important parts of the whole recitation. Without a definite, motivating assignment in such form that the pupils are interested and capable of attacking the problem intelligently, the next day's recitation will be a failure. The assignment may be made either at the beginning or at the end of the period. It is ordinarily better to make the assignment at the beginning of the period, as this procedure provides for sufficient time for this important part of the period's work.

While it is recognized that this score card is by no means perfect, it is believed that its conscientious use will serve as an improvement over our present vague and indefinite method of supervising secondary-school teaching. The use of it in accordance with the plan and purpose here outlined will at least eliminate the all too common criticism of many high-school teachers concerning the principal's or supervisor's visit to their classes: "He did not say anything about it." If the recitation is good in the light of this card and in the supervisor's judgment, then the teacher should be commended and the points of commendation noted. If not, a frank, impersonal criticism should be made. This card, it is believed and hoped, will serve as a basis for this commendation and criticism.

IMPROVING THE OBJECTIVE-TEST QUESTION

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There are two current objections to the true-false type of question: (1) it presents too great an opportunity for guessing; (2) it emphasizes false statements. This article offers a suggestion for meeting both of these objections with a new form of question.

The multiple-choice type of question decreases the amount of guessing. If three or more answers are given from which choice must be made, the chance of guessing decreases as the number of statements increases and even in the case of three answers is so small that it may be ignored in the scoring. For this reason, the multiple-choice form has been preferred by many and has been extensively employed in testing intelligence and achievement. In this type of question all the answers are false but one. This fact intensifies the second objection to the true-false question, namely, that false statements are emphasized. This latter objection is at least partly met by the fact that pupils must constantly pass true-false tests in life outside of school; furthermore, all probable answers must be presented before a question can be answered fully and intelligently. Still, the "false-syntax" argument has created a prejudice against the true-false and multiple-choice forms of questions which stands in the way of their extended use.

A variant form is suggested in which all statements but one are true and in some of the questions all the statements are true. The following is an example.

Longfellow (1) was born in 1807; (2) he attended Bowdoin College; he wrote (3) *Thanatopsis* and (4) *Evangeline*. Which one is false? If none, write o. _____

By analogy, this might be called the "worst-answer" type of question. The advantages of this form of question are evident at a glance. While all the statements are true except the third, and even that one might be made true, the pupil must check each statement before the answer can be given. Furthermore, the added statement,

"If none, write o," still further decreases the chance of guessing correctly. If only two statements are offered with this additional condition, there are three opportunities for guessing. If one of the incorrect answers is made particularly attractive, the probability of guessing is reduced.

Questions of this type enable the teacher to cover more ground in the same space than when either the true-false or the multiple-choice type is used. In the true-false test about one-half of the statements must be false, while in the "best-answer" type there is a much larger percentage of untrue statements. In the "worst-answer" type there are several times as many true statements as there are questions, and not all the questions contain false statements. Yet, as previously stated, the opportunities for guessing are one greater than the number of statements, making the chance of correct guessing correspondingly less.

Constructing questions of this suggested type does not seem to be any more difficult than constructing questions of the commonly used multiple-choice type. In fact, it would appear to be less difficult. In the case of the following questions it was harder to find the co-ordinate false statements than to make the true ones, and the temptation is constantly to make too large a percentage of the statements true.

In view of the increasing use of the written question, not only for testing achievement but also for setting standards, for determining the course of study, and for improving teaching technique, any improvement in the form of the question tends further to promote its use for these purposes. The following questions in the field of general science will serve as examples.

1. Morse invented (1) the telegraph sending key, (2) the electromagnet sounder, and (3) the dot-and-dash alphabet. Which one is false? If none, write o. _____

2. (1) More than one telegraph message may be sent over a single wire at the same time; (2) the larger the wire, the faster the message is transmitted. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____

3. The electromagnet in the relay of a telegraph circuit has many turns of wire (1) to increase the resistance in the circuit, (2) to increase the strength of the magnet, (3) to increase the strength of the current. Which is true? If none, write o. _____

4. The current which works the sounder in a telegraph circuit (1) is induced, (2) has low voltage. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____
5. The line wire of a telegraph circuit is grounded (1) in order to protect it from lightning, (2) to complete the circuit. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____
6. The operator of a telegraph circuit must have (1) his switch open while sending, (2) closed while receiving. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____
7. There are no permanent magnets in (1) the sending or (2) the receiving instruments of a telegraph circuit. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____
8. In a long-distance telegraph system the local circuit contains (1) the sounder, (2) a battery, (3) the armature of the relay. Which is false? If none, write o. _____
9. The sounder in a telegraph circuit (1) has a stronger spring than the relay, (2) has more turns of wire than the relay. Which is false? If neither, write o. _____
10. The operation of long-distance telegraph lines is interfered with by (1) changes of temperature, (2) faulty insulation, (3) electromagnetic disturbances from the sun. Which is false? If none, write o. _____

A STUDY OF ACHIEVING AND NON-ACHIEVING HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

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Correlations between achievement in school subjects as indicated by teachers' marks and scores on intelligence tests usually range from .40 to .60, .50 being generally accepted as the average. While the correlation indicates a tendency for bright pupils to make high marks in their studies and has considerable use for predictive purposes so far as group achievement is concerned, it is too low to be of value in the prediction of individual success. The attempts to secure homogeneity of groups for instructional purposes by sectioning on the basis of ability as indicated by performance on intelligence tests cannot therefore yield entirely satisfactory results until there is some measure of other factors involved.

On the assumption that intelligence tests indicate what the pupil ought to do, many explanations of the discrepancy between capacity and performance have been suggested. Such factors as the pupil's interests, and certain traits, such as perseverance and industry, have frequently been mentioned. Teaching technique, home conditions, health, and the effects of mixing bright, mediocre, and dull children have all received attention.

During the school year 1924-25 a preliminary study of factors other than intelligence that affect success in the high school was carried on in the University High School of the University of Minnesota. The study took into consideration home conditions, physical data, the pupils' interests, and the rating of the pupils on a number of traits supposed to be more or less operative in the situation. Because of the widespread interest in, and the many attempts to use, rating technique as a substitute for adequate objective methods of measuring personality and character traits yet to be developed, the results of this part of the study are here set forth, following a description of the group and its method of selection.

Selection of the group.—The subjects were selected from each of the four classes in the University High School on the basis of the discrepancy between their achievement, as indicated by their marks, and their capacity as indicated by their scores on intelligence tests. As a measure of performance, the marks of the pupils in English, mathematics, and general science during their freshman year were used. In order to deal with the marks, a numerical value was assigned to each as follows: A = 110; B = 80; C+ = 70; C = 60; C- = 50; D = 40; F = 10. The marks made by the Seniors, Juniors, and Sophomores in each of these three subjects during all three quarters of their freshman year and the marks made by the Freshmen during their first quarter were translated into their numerical equivalents. The average scores for each subject for the year were determined. The standard deviation of the distribution of these average scores was calculated for each of the three subjects, and the raw scores were then translated into tenths of a standard deviation with 50 as the mean and zero at 5 S.D. negative. This value is hereafter referred to as the standard deviation, or S.D. score. The average of the S.D. scores in English, mathematics, and general science was taken as the pupil's achievement score.

Although we are dealing with past achievement in any comparisons made with the trait ratings, it was found that there is a very marked tendency for the pupils in the University High School to maintain the same relative standing throughout the entire four years. The writer found that the correlation between the average of the marks in English, mathematics, and general science given the Seniors in their freshman year and the average of all their marks for the first quarter of their last year was .63. Gratia M. Kelley found a correlation of .88 between the marks of the first and ninth quarters for the class of 1924-25 of this school.¹

As a measure of capacity, the intelligence quotient as derived from a number of tests and equated in terms of the Stanford-Binet I.Q. was used. Every applicant for admission to the University High School is given a number of intelligence tests and is usually retested once or twice during his school career. The number of tests given

¹ Unpublished data furnished by W. S. Miller.

the pupils from whom the subjects were selected ranged from three to ten. The tests applied to the different classes are as follows:

Class of 1927-28 (Freshmen):

- Army Group Examination, Alpha, Form 8
- Pressey Senior Classification Test
- Miller Mental Ability Test, Form A
- Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form A
- Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A

Class of 1926-27 (Sophomores):

- Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Forms A and B
- Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form A
- Army Group Examination, Alpha, Form 8

Class of 1925-26 (Juniors):

- Miller Mental Ability Test, Forms A and B
- Haggerty Intelligence Examination, Delta 2
- Army Group Examination, Alpha, Form 8
- Terman Group Test of Mental Ability, Form A
- Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, Higher Examination, Form A
- Pressey Senior Classification Test
- Illinois General Intelligence Scale, Form 2
- Dearborn Group Tests of Intelligence, II C
- Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests

Class of 1924-25 (Seniors):

- Miller Mental Ability Test, Form A
- Illinois General Intelligence Scale, Form 2
- Army Group Examination, Alpha, Form 8
- Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Tests

The raw scores on the group tests were converted into intelligence quotients, and these in turn were translated into equivalents of the Stanford-Binet I.Q.'s.¹ All the equated I.Q.'s were then averaged for the purposes of this study. For each of the four classes the distribution of the average I.Q.'s was treated separately; the standard deviation was calculated, and the I.Q.'s were translated into standard deviation scores, as in the case of the marks. The standard deviation scores for both the intelligence quotients and the marks

¹ W. S. Miller, "The Variation and Significance of Intelligence Quotients Obtained from Group Tests," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XV (September, 1924), 359-66.

were plotted on a scatter-graph, and those cases were selected in which the difference between the standard deviation score of the intelligence quotient and that of the marks was one full sigma or more.

Description of the group selected.—In all, forty-five pupils were selected for the study. Of these forty-five pupils, twenty-six were boys and nineteen were girls. There were twenty-four "achievers," that is, pupils who were exceeding the indications of the tests, and twenty-one "non-achievers," or pupils who were falling below the indications of the tests. Of the twenty-four achievers, fourteen were boys and ten were girls; of the non-achievers, twelve were boys and nine were girls.

The range in I.Q.'s was from 89 to 143. This includes the lowest and the highest I.Q.'s found in the entire school, the lowest belonging to an achiever and the highest to a non-achiever. The average for the achievers was 106.5; for the non-achievers, 120.2.

Tables I and II present data showing how the group studied was distributed with respect to intelligence quotients, mental age, and chronological age. Twenty-seven of the forty-five subjects were below the mean of their respective classes in I.Q.; eighteen were above the mean. Of those above the mean of their respective classes in I.Q., three, or 17 per cent, were achievers; fifteen, or 83 per cent, were non-achievers. Of the twenty-seven who were below the mean, twenty-one, or 78 per cent, were achievers, while only six, or 22 per cent, were non-achievers.

Of the fifteen non-achievers who were above the mean of their respective classes in I.Q., fourteen were above the mean of their respective classes in mental age; only one was below. The three achievers who were above the mean of their respective classes in I.Q. were above the mean in mental age. Of the twenty-one achievers who were below the mean of their respective classes in I.Q., ten were at or above the mean in mental age, while eleven were below. Of the six non-achievers who were below the mean of their respective classes in I.Q., two were above the mean in mental age; four were below.

Turning to a consideration of chronological age and mental age, we find that twenty-eight of the entire group of subjects selected

were above the mean of their respective classes in chronological age; seventeen were below. Of the twenty-eight pupils above the mean of their respective classes in chronological age, twenty-one were achiev-

TABLE I

THE ACHIEVERS AND THE NON-ACHIEVERS IN THE GROUP STUDIED DISTRIBUTED
AS TO INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS AND MENTAL AGE IN
THEIR RESPECTIVE CLASSES

	Achievers	Non-Achievers	Total
Number below the mean in I.Q.	21	6	27
Number above the mean in I.Q.	3	15	18
Total	24	21	45
Number above the mean in I.Q. and in mental age	3	14	17
Number above the mean in I.Q. and below the mean in mental age	0	1	1
Number below the mean in I.Q. and in mental age	11	4	15
Number below the mean in I.Q. and above the mean in mental age	10	2	12
Total	24	21	45

TABLE II

THE ACHIEVERS AND THE NON-ACHIEVERS IN THE GROUP STUDIED DISTRIBUTED
AS TO CHRONOLOGICAL AGE AND MENTAL AGE IN
THEIR RESPECTIVE CLASSES

	Achievers	Non-Achievers	Total
Number above the mean in C.A.	21	7	28
Number below the mean in C.A.	3	14	17
Total	24	21	45
Number above the mean in C.A. and in M.A.	10	5	15
Number above the mean in C.A. and below the mean in M.A.	11	2	13
Number below the mean in C.A. and in M.A.	1	3	4
Number below the mean in C.A. and above the mean in M.A.	2	11	13
Total	24	21	45

ers and seven were non-achievers. Of the seventeen pupils below the mean of their respective classes in chronological age, three were achievers and fourteen were non-achievers.

Ten of the twenty-one achievers who were above the mean of their respective classes in chronological age were above the mean of their respective classes in mental age; eleven were below. Of the seven non-achievers who were above the mean of their respective classes in chronological age, five were above the mean in mental age; two were below. Eleven of the fourteen non-achievers who were below the mean of their respective classes in chronological age were above the mean in mental age; three were below.

We cannot ascribe the achievement of the twenty-four subjects who were exceeding the indications of the tests to the factor of mental age since, as a group, they were lower than the non-achievers in both I.Q. and mental age. They had the advantage in chronological age, however. Since achievement is considered here in a relative rather than an absolute sense, many of the achievers were receiving marks which were lower than those of the non-achievers. It is evident, then, that they were a group in which some selective factor had been at work. There is little doubt that to some extent their perseverance kept them struggling along, while the majority of those of equal intellectual equipment but less gifted in character traits had dropped out.

Trait ratings and their relation to achievement.—A rating scale was used which was closely modeled after that used by Terman in his study of gifted children. Previous to the final formation of this rating scale, the teachers in the University High School, a number of graduate students in psychology, educational psychology, and departments of the College of Education of the University of Minnesota, and some members of the faculty were given a mixed list of sixty or more so-called "traits" selected from the writings of Hollingworth, Link, Downey, Charters, and others with a request to select and rank in order the ten traits which they thought might be most important in explaining school success. The purpose of this preliminary questionnaire was to determine whether there was any marked unanimity with regard to the designation of any one trait or a few traits as outstanding as well as to provide a basis for the selection of the traits to be studied.

Replies to this preliminary questionnaire from thirty-four people, all of whom had had teaching experience of from two to twenty-five

years, were tabulated. With the exception of "general ability," "industry," and "physical health," no item received first mention more than twice. Notwithstanding the fact that those replying were asked to add any trait that they thought might affect the situation, there were no additions that appeared with frequency.

Since several of the traits, or modes of behavior, are presumably very much alike, and since there was marked agreement on only a few, those finally selected were the ones most frequently mentioned and a few additional ones to provide for certain factors, such as "personal attractiveness," "respect for authority," and "vigor and energy," that were thought to be important in the situation. The fifteen traits finally selected are as follows:

1. Health
2. Self-confidence
3. Industry
4. Leadership
5. Co-operativeness
6. Originality
7. Sense of humor
8. Common sense and judgment
9. Perseverance
10. Vigor and energy
11. Dependability
12. Ambition: desire to excel
13. Accuracy
14. Personal attractiveness
15. Respect for authority

The instructions accompanying the rating scale asked that the subject be compared with the average boy or girl of the same chronological age. This request was made because the subjects studied were not an average group so far as the school situation is concerned. In their achievement considered in relation to their indicated capacity, they represented the two extremes of a distribution.

After the ratings were made by the teachers, a numerical value was assigned to each rating on each trait. The values assigned ranged from 0 to 60, 30 being the average. Hence, if a subject scored average on any trait, his score for that trait would be 30; if he scored average on all traits, his total score would be 450.

Fifteen members of the faculty of the University High School

participated in the rating of the subjects. From two to seven teachers rated each subject, the majority of the subjects being rated by from four to seven teachers. Because the classes in this school are sectioned on the basis of ability and because subjects were selected from each of the four years, it was impossible to obtain ratings on all the subjects by the same faculty member or members. It was also impossible to get a repetition of ratings in the time at our disposal.

The median rating on each trait was used as the subject's score on that trait. An attempt was made to determine the reliability of the ratings by correlating the median of half the ratings of the entire group of subjects on each trait with the median of the other half of the ratings. The ratings were divided into halves by chance selection. The self-correlation coefficients thus obtained range from .330 to .775, the P.E.'s ranging from .039 to .088.

The trait ratings for the forty-five subjects were correlated with the S.D. scores of their marks. In addition, the mean and the median scores on each trait for the achievers and the non-achievers were calculated, as was also the P.E. of the difference between the means. Table III shows for each trait the reliability coefficient, the coefficient of correlation with achievement, the mean and the median scores for the achievers and the non-achievers, the difference between the means, and the P.E. of the difference. No attempt was made to treat the sexes separately in the handling of these ratings. The coefficients of correlation with achievement range from .210 to .767.

In some instances the ratings show evidence of bimodality, as would be expected in the case of two such groups, but the distribution of achievement is fairly regular for such a small number of cases. The reliability coefficients are low, but one must keep in mind the fact that in some cases there were only two ratings for each trait and the fact that no one teacher rated all the subjects. The method of testing reliability was therefore a severe test of the scale's reliability. With one exception, the differences between the means are in favor of the achievers, which adds to the significance of the ratios between the differences of the means and their probable errors. These ratios are in most instances not pronounced, ranging from slightly less than 2 to 1 to almost 6 to 1 except in the cases of "sense

of humor," "personal attractiveness," and "originality." In the case of "sense of humor" the difference between the means is the reverse of the usual relation between the groups. In the case of "personal attractiveness" the probable error is greater than the difference between the means. The total group of subjects represented the extremes of their respective classes so far as achievement in relation to ability as indicated by the tests is concerned. If the traits rated

TABLE III

SELF-CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR EACH TRAIT, COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION WITH ACHIEVEMENT, AND THE MEAN AND THE MEDIAN RATINGS ON EACH TRAIT FOR THE ACHIEVERS AND THE NON-ACHIEVERS

TRAIT	SELF-CORRELATION COEFFICIENT	CORRELATION WITH ACHIEVEMENT	MEDIAN SCORE		MEAN SCORE		M ₁ -M ₂	P. E., M ₁ -M ₂
			Achievers	Non-Achievers	Achievers	Non-Achievers		
Health.....	.509	.264	37	34	36.6	34.1	2.5	1.43
Self-confidence.....	.477	.534	36.5	30	34.5	29.6	4.9	1.73
Industry.....	.405	.608	40	29	40.0	29.9	10.1	1.70
Leadership.....	.551	.454	30.5	26	30.2	25.5	4.7	1.89
Co-operativeness.....	.483	.515	41	36	39.2	35.6	3.6	1.60
Originality.....	.527	.638	32.5	31	32.9	30.9	2.0	1.71
Sense of humor.....	.467	.259	36	37	35.4	35.9	-0.5	1.41
Common sense and judgment.....	.330	.680	39	33	38.2	33.9	4.3	1.25
Perseverance.....	.497	.481	35.5	30	36.0	30.1	5.9	1.6
Vigor and energy.....	.382	.321	35.5	31	33.9	29.7	4.2	1.63
Dependability.....	.427	.557	41.5	31	40.8	33.7	7.1	1.79
Ambition.....	.630	.678	38	31	37.2	29.8	7.4	1.69
Accuracy.....	.509	.710	39.5	25	35.8	26.3	9.5	1.92
Personal attractiveness.....	.775	.210	34	35	34.7	33.7	1.0	1.68
Respect for authority.....	.477	.253	42	36	41.9	38.2	3.7	1.85
Total rating.....	.583	.767	546	484	550.0	479.0

bear any relation to achievement, the achievers, therefore, should have displayed the traits to a higher degree than the non-achievers, and the teachers should have had little difficulty in perceiving this difference. It is apparent, then, that even such reliability as was obtained might not be found in rating a normal group.

The coefficients obtained by correlating the trait ratings for the entire group of subjects with their achievement scores are open to suspicion because the group was composed of two extremes, although their achievement follows a fairly good approximation to a normal

curve. Nor are the correlations always supported by the indications of the means and the medians, although, as previously noted, the difference is, in general, consistently in favor of the achievers. In spite of the admitted difficulties, it appears that in this particular situation the teachers were able to make distinctions in their ratings. Several factors may have contributed to making this possible, such as the smallness of the classes, the familiarity of the teachers with experimental work, the superior type of teachers in this school, and the great amount of individual attention paid to the pupils by their teachers.

If we take into consideration these factors which should have contributed to discriminating ratings and also the pronounced difference between the two groups with respect to their achievement in relation to capacity, the results obtained are not so favorable to the general use of rating technique in school situations. Nevertheless, there are certain significant relationships that seem to be worth noting. Thus, our supposition that the personal charm of the pupil may be acting to vitiate the marks is not very well substantiated by the low correlation and certainly not by the fact that the median of the ratings for the non-achievers exceeds the median of the ratings for the achievers and the means are but little different. Likewise, the general assumption that success in high school is contingent upon health is not very well supported either by the correlation or by the differences between the medians and the means.¹ Nor does the correlation between achievement and "respect for authority" bear out the assumption that the pupil is penalized who does not possess a high degree of this trait—if we may call it such.

On the other hand, there seems to be a rather pronounced relation between success in the high school and such traits as "industry," "ambition," "accuracy," and "common sense." The correlation between the total rating and achievement is higher than that found between I.Q. and achievement during the freshman year of any of the four classes from which subjects were selected. All these correlations are supported by the ratios between the differences of the means and their probable errors.

¹ Other data on physical condition support the ratings.

WITH ENGLISH SCHOOLFOLK IN SUMMER TERM

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About the time that American boys and girls are toiling in the schoolroom through the torrid nineties of June and hoping that examination week may be blessed with a cooler touch, their English friends are placidly carrying on in the midst of the third school term, the thermometer registering not more than seventy-five or eighty degrees. It is no marvelous feat, then, to leave an American classroom in mid-June, board the Leviathan, arrive in England when schools are in full stride, and for several weeks see something of work and play before the "revisions" (reviews) begin. The following paragraphs are a summary of observations made in June and July, 1925, in sixteen schools, beginning with Sidcot, near the west coast, a co-educational school under the supervision of the Society of Friends, including Winchester, Christ's Hospital, Charterhouse, Bedales (the leading progressive school of England), Whitgift, Mill Hill, Merchant Taylors, Rugby, Oundle, Gresham's, Perse, Leeds Grammar, and Ackworth, and ending with Bootham and The Mount at York.

Four weeks spent in this way does not qualify one to speak with authority. I remember a little English lady who was discussing the question of exchange teachers. She had taught two years in the United States and insisted that nothing less than two years in a foreign country could be of any real value in the formation of judgment, since in her experience it took that length of time for people of a nation to forget their good manners with a stranger and treat him as one of their own. There are doubtless many cases in which our citizens have been able to reduce this apprenticeship of courtesy for the visitor in America, but the remark is a proper warning against presuming to sound the depths while in transit. Sometimes judgments thus formed are too harsh; sometimes they would be more wearable if the common metal of discourtesy might alloy them. But there are interesting facts to chronicle, and perhaps even a hurried

view may glimpse some of the ideals that inform the work even if it misses the finer details of the machine.

With three exceptions, the schools I visited were boarding schools, and virtually all of them were what is known in England as "public schools," supported by foundations established in the public interest, with little or no control by government agencies.

The first thing one notices in an English school is, of course, the buildings and equipment. It goes almost without saying that in places like Winchester and Rugby these are of proud antiquity: here a dining hall in which tables of six-inch oak are still in service, with the ancient trencher now relegated to the humble function of bread-and-butter plate; here a study desk carved with the names of men glorious in British tradition; here the "bird bath" for the pupils, tempered with the modern luxury of hot water once a week; here unadorned classroom walls and venerable classroom furniture; here a fine old Tudor room on the top floor set apart for art work. Coming to the more modern school, we still find little in a material way that Americans would call "new." Great foundations like Christ's Hospital (school of the "blue-coats"), transferring their work from valuable city sites to the country, can now and then afford to buy vast tracts of land and to erect ample buildings, but most of these are more than twenty years old. One headmaster showed with pride his "new" building of two decades service, and well preserved it was, too. In another school a building of the same age contained one classroom which got all its ventilation and light from the door and a single skylight. This is a far cry from the practice of a land where the rapid growth of population in cities and the spread of education force out of service a building twenty-five years old and command plants that are the "final word" in school architecture.

Of course, one expects to feel the pulse of the school life in the classroom. Blackboard space is more scanty than with us, limited in a number of the old schools to a single small board in each room, on which the teacher writes an occasional note, sometimes carefully unlocking a box to get the chalk and the cloth which serves as an eraser. In language-teaching the penny notebook is in constant service, the pupils writing down what the teachers or their fellow-pupils give and holding themselves ready to repeat the material on the

following day. With very few exceptions, the classes are small; twenty is the average; thirty, the maximum, this maximum appearing in only two of the schools I saw, both day schools in large cities. There is in some of the older schools a severity in the masters and occasionally a vigor of language which is in violent contrast to the sympathetic bearing of the teachers in the more modern schools. Classes before breakfast are maintained, too, in many of the old foundation schools during the summer and autumn terms. In recitation the work of the pupils is often remarkable for maturity of thought and expression, but it is only fair to say that a number of the great schools pursuing high-school work have the opportunity to choose by examination the best pupils from lower schools which are devoting themselves entirely to "preparatory" work of elementary grade. In fact, the way to higher education is, for the most part, closed to all but pupils of promise or of social position.

The curriculum shows as wide divergence as in other countries. In most of the schools which I visited the center of the course is Latin and Greek, which the English schoolboys read widely and in which they achieve remarkably. The traditional attack through grammatical study prevails, but the direct method, inaugurated by Dr. Rouse, of Perse School, Cambridge, and Dr. Andrew, of Whitgift School, Croydon, flourishes in these schools and finds respect and acceptance in many other quarters. It was dazzling to hear Dr. Rouse's pupils in the sixth form commenting in Greek on the thought of Sophocles' *Antigone*, interrupted now and then by the teacher's explanation of the meaning of new Greek words by definitions entirely in Greek, and later to witness the same kind of work under Dr. Appleton in Latin with boys much younger. In French and German the direct method is more nearly universal, and the ancient British indifference to French pronunciation is fast disappearing under teachers who have had to undertake a year's course in phonetics before being allowed to teach the language. Science, engineering, and electricity are well established in certain schools and are covered with the same thoroughness as are the classics in the more conventional program. In boys' schools much attention is given to music. A boarding school of two hundred boys had three masters in charge of music, one of them an eminent writer of hymns,

another a rising young musician already called upon to lead a distinguished London orchestra. Art and handicraft are almost universal and are taught in the spirit of modern method. Religious teaching with Church of England bias is, of course, common. English is slowly making its way as a curriculum subject, emerging from the province of the man who is engaged to help with games and miscellany. The classes I visited were never perfunctory or dull, and, though one piece of work, the study of Keats's *Hyperion* supplemented by outside critical reading, seemed to an American rather advanced for fifteen-year-old boys, it is not possible in a few weeks to project oneself into the thinking of a group for whom Keats is truly indigenous. Moreover, the English boy is remarkably mature, and he is accustomed to look to his masters for a sound and broad scholarship suitable to develop maturity.

Generally speaking, the master in the English school impresses one as abler than the average school man in our country. It is very rarely that a master is given serious consideration for a position in one of the leading schools unless he has won honors in his subject. Scotland prides herself on requiring a university diploma of everyone who wishes to teach in an elementary country school. Keats and electrical engineering for fifteen-year-old pupils seem normal in such an atmosphere.

Some of the more recent developments in pedagogy are very well known in England but not widely indorsed. The Dalton Plan of laboratory study has been tried in numerous elementary schools, but in all but a very few of the secondary schools which I visited it was scarcely known even by name. In one experimental school which three years before had published a full report of its work under the Dalton Plan there was no evidence of its use in the classes I visited. The newer universities, such as Leeds and London, are well in touch with standardized tests and the various chartings which have been in vogue on this side of the water, and have themselves done work in the field, but the British headmaster is temperamentally distrustful of the impersonal. Of the two or three who spoke of experience with tests, only one felt any satisfaction; another used them merely as convenient machinery to distinguish among several able boys who were candidates for honors.

When we come to extra-curriculum activities, the first place must go to games. England's weather permits outdoor games the year round, and there is no very pressing need for elaborate gymnasium facilities. The visitor is not surprised, then, to find in one of the best-equipped schools a meager wooden shed, which serves as a gymnasium for five hundred boys, leaning up against the lordly stone of a quadrangle. Instead of the drill work in the gymnasium, there is cricket in the spring and Rugby in the autumn and winter. Cricket here and there meets a conscientious objector who insists on tennis, and we sometimes hear a furtive whisper of baseball. Rugby is the ruling autumn game, soccer having steadily lost ground in the schools because of the blight of professionalism, which has something of the hold that we know in American baseball. For drill the Officers' Training Corps appears to suffice, for long before the war English school-boys turned out at least once a week to maneuver under the raucous cries of army officers.

Non-athletic "activities" do not attain to the elaboration that we know in America. Student magazines are rare; whatever periodical the school calls its own is likely to be edited or written by members of the staff or by alumni or both. *Brighter Rugby*, a light school publication whose English slang title would probably read in American slang "Snappier Rugby," is one of the exceptions, but it is far less pretentious than the average school magazine in the United States. The numerous school camps, conducted by masters of the schools and attended by boys from the "public" schools and by town boys of meager opportunities, do much in the week or two of their existence after the summer term to cut across the barrier of caste. The Duke of York is sponsor for the largest of these camps, to which he invites each summer two boys from each of a number of the great schools and a considerable number of boys from the poorer quarters of London. There are, to be sure, scientific clubs, most significant perhaps being the Archaeological Society at Winchester, which has published a book on the town of Winchester not likely soon to be superseded.

Student co-operation in the purpose of the school is of a kind totally different from that in our country, except where our schools are conducted on the English model. The key to the English system

is the prestige and influence of the sixth-form boy, one who has generally fulfilled the essentials for entrance to college, who may have been awarded a scholarship by the college for which he has been preparing, and who, in accordance with the desire of the college authorities and a well-established tradition, returns to his school for special work in the subjects nearest his heart, with a view to getting a good start toward honors in his university study. Students of this type are, of course, a joy to their masters, and they are everywhere recognized as an integral part of the school authority, serving as prefects for the discipline of the younger boys and interpreting the traditions of the school.

Discipline in many English schools still relies on the cane as a last resort, particularly in the case of the younger boys. Yet rarely do we find a master who would indorse the statement of an old Scotch school that the vigorous open-air life of the boys renders necessary the retention of corporal punishment, and few headmasters would blunder as did one who, finding a line of boys before his study one morning, flogged them each in turn only to learn when he had finished that the boys had come for their weekly lesson in divinity. In many schools caning has been given up; in others where it is allowed masters refuse to have recourse to it. In one school a boy who has rendered himself liable to caning must always be permitted the option of an interview with the headmaster, and it is school history that the boy chooses the caning. Schools sometimes resort to other penalties for the refractory—forcing the boy to run around a track, detention with assignments for copying, and, in the boarding schools, cutting off privileges.

In the co-ordination and control of every phase of school life the headmaster has a weighty rôle. If in America the headmaster is often the center of things, in England he is the center in a sense that only those who have seen for themselves would be willing to believe. One distinguished head of a great day school recently resigned because his school had grown so large that he could no longer know each of his boys (there were now a thousand of them) intimately and personally. When I asked the headmaster of a world-famous school whether he himself made out the time schedule of classes, he replied with the question, "How else can I know what they are doing?" Every head-

master has his special bulletin board, on which, often in his own handwriting, he addresses to the boys notices about school dress, behavior toward the neighbors and their poultry, award of honors, and a thousand and one other details that touch the boys; many of the heads of boarding schools have charge of dormitories in their own houses; all engage in some teaching as well as in direct supervision and examination of the work of the other teachers. I remember with special pleasure a Monday morning scene in a busy headmaster's study, when the fortnightly form lists were brought to the "head" by the boys who led the forms for the preceding two weeks. One entered at a time, making his way up the winding staircase. With superficial curttness but unmistakable warmth in his dignity, the headmaster received the list, congratulated the boy, invited him to write his name in the record book, and passed him out with a personal word about some special interest in his school life. The headmaster is the epitome of the English school, and it is his personality that lends individuality to his particular institution in a way that makes it difficult in an article like this to write a statement that will apply to more than two or three schools. There is a flavor of the unique about almost every headmaster one meets in England. Sanderson of Oundle conveys a special connotation even outside of educational circles. Howson of Holt and Badley of Bedales deserve to be known more widely for what they have given to English youth, and so with numerous others who lack the pens of eminent novelists to herald their ideals outside their own kingdoms. The English schoolmaster looks with distrust on American "factory methods" in education, on mass production and standardization, on what he calls obvious "window-dressing." He is often open to new ideas, however, especially from America. We should certainly keep before us the value of his insistence upon knowing the boy at first hand. In our assurance that we are scientific-minded in education we may find ourselves studying abstractions while we let slip the chance for a natural friendly understanding of the individual boy. English and American methods should never be identical, but they can profitably make interchange of elements of strength, for neither there nor here are the schoolmasters entirely succeeding in the task before them.

In the shadow of the Great War one is tempted to read from the

war memorials of the schools something of the spirit of English education. Many of the monuments are content with the note of glory, which almost wears the guise of irony in the light of statesmanship after the war; some are frankly touched with heartbreak or resignation. Winchester has stately cloisters; Bedales, a simple and serviceable library; Gresham's, a chapel of chaste design. The prevailing form is a tablet of names, with a keynote sentence or phrase. One such memorial unites an appreciation of the spirit of the dead with a unique challenge to the living. The legend comes from the writings of an "old boy," Edmund Spenser, and is carved high on the paneling of the staircase in the old Charterhouse building which his school, the Merchant Taylors, now occupies: "Soe have I thought good to sett down a remembrance of them for myne owne good, that whoeso list to overlook them may follow after with more ease, and happely may find a fayrer waye than they which have gone before." In some such key must the note for international understanding be rung, and in some such spirit may the training of boys and girls combine the valor of the old tradition with the generous freedom of newer ways.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Pupil activities in junior and senior high schools.—It is very gratifying to note that the spirit of critical inquiry which has been manifest in elementary education for the last decade is gradually appearing in the field of secondary education. Not only is the curriculum of the junior and senior high schools being subjected to scientific investigation, but serious attention is being given to the extra-curriculum phases of the secondary-school program. It is generally conceded that the tendency of teachers is to standardize and formalize any type of work which becomes definitely curricular. For this reason, adolescents have not been developing initiative, resourcefulness, and the other qualities of leadership through the routine of the classroom to the degree that is desirable. Each generation should develop leaders from among its youth, and in theory the American system of education has had this as one of its chief objectives. Holding to this ideal, we are now turning to those activities of the school which are not definitely supervised and directed by the faculty. We hope to find here an opportunity for training for democracy which the curricular program is not providing.

Those who attended the meeting of the National Society for the Study of Education in Washington, February 23, 1926, will remember the very interesting discussion of extra-curriculum activities as presented in Part II of the twenty-fifth yearbook of the society. The entire presentation stressed the fact that as yet the most that can be done is to outline attitudes toward, and policies of, extra-curriculum activities without attempting an evaluation of these activities or setting up any standards.

Among the new books in this field which have appeared since the Washington meeting is that by Roemer and Allen.¹ Professor Roemer, high-school visitor of the University of Florida, has had abundant opportunity to study organizations of pupils in secondary schools. He has also experimented with these organizations in the public schools of Orlando City, Florida. Mr. Allen is principal of the West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Arkansas. For several years he has given special attention to pupil organizations in his own school. He has also given courses in extra-curriculum activities for the University of Arkansas and for the University of Rochester. The practical experience of the writers frees the text at the outset from the charge of being merely theoretical.

¹ Joseph Roemer and Charles Forrest Allen, *Extra-Curricular Activities in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926. Pp. x+334.

After a foreword by Professor Elbert K. Fretwell, of Columbia University, and an introduction by President L. D. Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, the authors devote one chapter to the development of the principles on which an extra-curriculum program ought to be based. This is followed by a chapter describing the methods successfully used in the introduction of a definite extra-curriculum program in the West Side Junior High School at Little Rock.

In the light of these two chapters, the authors proceed to treat separately the types of activities commonly considered to be outside the curriculum. The list includes teachers' meetings, home-room activities, assemblies, morals and manners, thrift, health athletics, publications, scouting, dramatics, fraternities and sororities, honor societies, and the library. While social, athletic, and dramatic organizations are treated in less detail than one might expect, it is noticeable that teachers' meetings, thrift, scouting, and health are comparatively new to texts of this kind. The busy administrator will find the treatment of these new topics most suggestive.

The chapter on "Student Participation in School Control" merits special mention. Much twaddle has been written about pupil self-government. The writers of this text have presented a plan for pupil participation in the government of the school that is simple, flexible, and sensible. It avoids placing too much responsibility on the pupils while at the same time it suggests genuine participation of a very helpful nature.

A very good chapter, "Internal Accounting in the Local School," deals with a system of pupil accounting to be used in handling the finances of the various pupil organizations. Too often in the past, this matter has been overlooked. As a result, temptation has been placed before the pupils, which some of them have been unable to withstand. Boys and girls of high-school age have been receiving excellent mistraining for life in a democracy. While too complicated for small schools, the system of accounting suggested is well outlined and can be modified to fit local conditions.

Modern texts in education use two types of bibliographies—a comparatively short list of references, chosen for their excellence, or a complete list of all the material dealing with the topics discussed. The authors of this text chose the second type. The last seventy pages of the book are devoted to the bibliographies on the different chapters. College instructors wishing to use the text in their courses will welcome these complete bibliographies. On the other hand, practical school men may be somewhat confused by this array of material and regret that the authors did not limit the references to a few of the most important.

Superintendents, principals, and teachers will find the entire book instructive and stimulating for study and very valuable for reference.

FLOYD T. GOODIER

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
CHICAGO HEIGHTS, ILLINOIS

Nature and nurture of intellectually gifted children.—The literature on the education of the gifted child is rapidly increasing in amount. To recent books of importance in this field, such as those of Terman and Stedman and Part I of the Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Professor Hollingworth has added a study¹ which summarizes the most significant findings and points the way to further research.

After a historical survey of this movement, the author presents the advantages of the modern approach, through mental testing, to the study of superior deviates. Attention is then concentrated on "the most intelligent 1 per cent of the juvenile population," namely, children whose I.Q.'s are 130 or higher. Evidence from many recent sources points to the superior character of most of the homes or families of such children and to the usual high standing of these boys and girls in physique, health, and social and moral characteristics. Conclusions similar to those of other recent writers are reached with reference to the lack of high positive correlation between general intelligence and special talent—for example, in music, drawing, and mechanics.

"We cannot now detect the gifted in early infancy," nor is it possible yet to obtain complete records of the individual development or of the family history of many exceptional children. The author presents many case histories of children who have I.Q.'s above 180 (Stanford-Binet); as usual, these make very interesting reading.

The last three chapters are devoted to a consideration of methods of training gifted children and of some of the implications of the presence of gifted persons in society. Brief reference is made to the best-known experiments along the line of adapting administrative and teaching procedures to the needs of gifted children. The author appears to favor the segregation of pupils of superior intelligence during the early years of their schooling. She makes suggestions as to the enrichment of the curriculum for such children, including emphasis on a study of civilization, on the use of biography, and on training in foreign languages and in the fine arts. The present dearth of suitable books seriously hinders experimentation.

The problem of utilizing gifted persons in leadership in a democracy is discussed at some length. To the reviewer, one of the most interesting sections in the book is the report concerning the quality of leadership demanded by certain groups of children; they wanted leaders more intelligent than the average of the group "but not too much more intelligent." This fact suggests one of the important reasons why men of mediocre ability so frequently attain to positions of leadership. The conservation of the gifted and the maximum utilization of their talents are matters that vitally concern our national welfare.

The book is comprehensive and readable; the diagrams, the records of actual classroom discussions, and the bibliographies contribute to its usefulness. The

¹ Leta S. Hollingworth, *Gifted Children: Their Nature and Nurture*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xxiv+374.

book offers many helpful suggestions to the administrator and teacher; it also presents to the research student a great many problems that await solution.

DAVID GUSTAFSON

Education for business.—The need of a better understanding of the general scope of business organization and the demand for the more technical training afforded in specialized commercial courses offered at the senior high school and junior-college levels have been apparent to teachers for a long time. Leon C. Marshall and Mildred J. Wiese have written a text¹ to meet these conditions.

The fifteen chapters in the book are grouped into seven parts. The first part shows how modern industry developed and presents a cross-sectional view of modern business organization based on type studies. Each of the other parts deals with one of the major problems faced by the modern business administrator: technology, personnel, markets, finance, risk-bearing, and public relations. Each part presents the background and needs for the particular type of organization developed and deals in detail with the business manager's administration of the problem. The content is illustrated by the use of statistical materials, charts, diagrams, and forms. Lists of questions and study references are appended to each chapter.

The materials have been tried out experimentally in a number of high schools and junior colleges. By careful discrimination and adequate organization of materials, the authors have been successful in bringing together a great mass of usable and valuable subject matter. The social implications of the practices of modern business are indicated. In the opinion of the reviewer, the book is well adapted for use in commercial and business classes. While the program of studies of any school will naturally determine the place of such a course in the curriculum, its value will be greatly increased if it is preceded by a treatment of the principles of economics.

W. G. KIMMEL

Critical essays on education.—In the practical affairs of education and government, tradition and prevailing practice are extremely important factors. Except in rare instances, new ideas in connection with either are best introduced in practice in a gradual manner.

A book² of essays on education and life has appeared, which, from the standpoint of literary style, critical analysis of modern educational and social practices, sincerely and courageously expressed opinions of one showing a keen insight into the problems involved, and deviation from commonly accepted opinions, challenges the attention of every experienced teacher who is already thoroughly convinced that the profession of teaching offers the greatest and most useful field of service.

¹ Leon C. Marshall and Mildred J. Wiese, *Modern Business*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. Pp. xii+520.

² Samuel D. Schmalhausen, *Humanizing Education*. New York: New Education Publishing Co., 1926. Pp. 344.

The book consists of forty-three essays grouped under six main headings: "Disillusionment: The Dawn of Wisdom," "Critical Mindedness: The Basis of the New Education," "Sex and Civilization: New Truths for Old," "Our Intellectual Blind Spots," "Human Nature in Reality," and "The Higher Learning: A Study in Wisdom and Folly."

While a perusal of the book leaves the reader with the feeling that many of the ideas expressed have been prompted by too long consideration of bitter experiences with duly constituted educational and governmental authorities and with the feeling that many statements are overdrawn and unduly critical, one's thought is challenged, often in opposition to the views expressed by the author. The author's stress upon, and plea for, critical-mindedness, freedom in individual thought and action, open-mindedness, the truth in teaching, the liberation of youth from superstitions, traditions, taboos, etc., are, in the main, wholesome and commendable. Many of the points of view expressed in connection with such topics as infantilism in education, benevolent feudalism in education, education stoops to conquer, chemical purity, our tainted ethics, courage and cowardice, and war, however, are so far at variance with generally accepted standards, ideas, and ideals and with commonly approved practices that it is doubtful whether the best interests of the profession of teaching and of society in general would be served by their acceptance. The progress of society and the preservation of the family and the nation depend on a proper regard for things sacred, on due respect for rightfully constituted authority, on democracy in education, and on the willingness of each individual at any and all times to employ whatever means necessary for the full protection of home and country.

The extremely critical attitude expressed in the essays is apparent from the two following quotations.

The profession of teaching requires but a low degree of intellectual efficiency, never challenges the deeper insights of the teaching mind, is utterly devoid of that complex of sophistication and maturity so essential to adequate mental growth, in short, cultivates a mental attitude that is closely akin to the infantile. The teacher is a grown-up child [p. 18].

Our educators (of major and minor importance) are essentially pedagogues, grammarians, worshipers of minutiae, splendid specialists in detail and routine absorptions [p. 7].

The content of the series of essays reveals wide reading and considerable study in all phases of education, sociology, and psychology and indicates a keen, philosophical insight into the problems involved. The extremely critical and occasionally radical nature of the material and the apparent bitter reaction of the author toward certain activities of duly organized educational and governmental agencies, however, tend to divert the attention of the reader from many of the finer qualities of the essays, such as the careful selection of words, the excellent rhetorical constructions, the extreme clarity of thought with which various educational, psychological, and sociological problems are considered, and the sincerity and courageousness with which a new type of education is sponsored.

To the teacher of seasoned experience and well-founded ideals, a perusal of the several essays should prove stimulating, amusing, and thought-provoking.

R. S. NEWCOMB

Easy reading material for second-year Latin.—The great need for simple reading material in Latin for second-year pupils before they begin the study of Caesar is being met by a variety of attractive and adaptable collections of short stories and plays. Among the recent publications of this kind is *Nocturnus*,¹ a collection of ten dramatic dialogues suitable for second-year work and for collateral reading beyond that level.

An interesting feature of the collection is its humor. Each dialogue presents a clever situation with enough plot to arouse the interest of the reader. The dialogues abound in fun and make delightful reading. *Nocturnus*, the hero of the escapades, is a mischievous fellow whose wit leads him into extraordinary situations and as readily extricates him. As is usually the case with narratives covering a wide range of subjects, there is some unessential vocabulary, unfortunately more than one would desire, but to offset this feature there is a wise choice of useful constructions.

The author states in the Preface that, in order to get the best results with this book, "the teacher should consistently—after the reading of each piece—insert a whole lesson of oral practice, by question and answer, upon this or that construction involved."

MARJORIE FAY

A French play of politics and the "salon."—Edouard Pailleron's *Le monde où l'on s'ennuie* as polite comedy is among the best of its kind in Nineteenth Century French drama. It has already been made familiar to many American instructors in several editions. A new edition² by Professors Frank Otis Reed and John Brooks, of the University of Arizona, is attractive in its arrangement—a short preface, a truly informative introduction in English, the body of the play, exercises, and a French-English vocabulary. The fourteen exercises particularly command attention. The editors have labored, as they declare, with the idea of "striking while the iron is hot." Each exercise, therefore, is based on one or more scenes and consists of (1) a questionnaire in French, (2) varied grammar drill, (3) *sujet de composition*, (4) English-French translation exercises, and (5) a list of idioms. Such a plan permits the instructor considerable liberty and assures interest on the part of students in the use of the materials in the text.

It is regrettable that the editors have not said a little less about Pailleron's life and works and a little more about the ideas which stir and motivate the

¹ R. B. Appleton, *Nocturnus: Dramatic Dialogues*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1926. Pp. 56. \$0.60.

² Edouard Pailleron, *Le monde où l'on s'ennuie*. Edited by Frank Otis Reed and John Brooks. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1926. Pp. xii+214.

twenty characters in the comedy. The average American student in high school or college knows nothing about the learned *académies* of France or about French politics and the *salon* and will little suspect how greatly French life is influenced by them. For this reason and since this is primarily a play of ideas, it may function unsatisfactorily in some classes. The instructor who uses it will likely find himself in the situation of the old peasant in Southey's "Battle of Blenheim," who has to face young Peterkin's question: "What did they kill each other for?"

DURBIN ROWLAND

*Minimal essentials of German inductively presented.—A Modern German Grammar*¹ by Peter Hagboldt and F. W. Kaufmann is so surprisingly new, so sound pedagogically, and so generally teachable that it is destined to exert a wholesome influence on all modern-language textbook-making in the future. The twenty-seven lessons into which the material is divided are, in the opinion of the reviewer, graded more scientifically than are the lessons in any other first-year book. It is evident on every page that the authors not only have had a fruitful experience in the teaching of German but have profited by the researches of such psychologists as Meumann, Ebbinghaus, Binet, and James. When one recalls that even within the last few years first-year modern-language texts have been written as if these men had never lived, this fact alone should commend the book to the favorable consideration of all teachers who are interested in the improvement of modern-language instruction.

The plan of the lessons is described in the Preface as follows:

Every lesson in this book consists of two parts: the first part (I) is analytical; the second part (II) constitutes the synthesis of the first.

Part I contains the following items: (a) a text embodying all the grammatical problems treated in the lesson; (b) a number of words, word groups, sentences, or paradigms illustrating these problems more clearly; (c) references to the grammatical appendix and several exercises intended to give the student a clear understanding and a certain grasp of the difficulties in the lesson; (d) a summary of the theoretical part of the lesson in the form of questions; (e) a reference to the corresponding reading selection in our *Inductive Readings I*.

Part I of each lesson, it is hoped, will suffice as a preparation for those students whose only aim is a reading knowledge of German.

Part II is intended as additional practice for all those students who besides a reading knowledge wish to acquire the ability to understand, write, and speak German with a moderate degree of correctness. It is devised to convert the somewhat passive knowledge gained through Part I into active mastery. Part II contains (a) questions based on the text of Part I; (b) a number of direct-method exercises gradually leading up to (c) exercises demanding a more or less free handling of the vocabulary and the problems involved in the lesson; (d) a composition exercise in which the student should be able to demonstrate that he has mastered the subject matter of the lesson.

¹ Peter Hagboldt and F. W. Kaufmann, *A Modern German Grammar*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1927. Pp. xiv+192. \$1.85.

All paradigms and rules of grammar are given in an appendix of forty-eight pages, which is a masterpiece of accuracy, lucidity, and conciseness.

That the authors have profited by the researches of others and have made an intelligent study of the learning process in their own classes is borne out by the fact that they have made a pedagogical distinction between the functions of analysis and synthesis in each lesson. By analysis the student is led to infer the grammatical principles involved in the reading text. The task of inference is made so easy that the learning of the grammatical *minima* in each assignment becomes a pleasure rather than a bore. The student really learns by induction. Rules of grammar are at no point forced upon him. Synthesis, or practice in making use of the facts and principles learned in the process of analysis, is no less skilfully provided for. By simple yet inherently interesting questions and other direct-method devices, the student is led with surprising rapidity to free reproduction and the ability to write simple idiomatic German.

The highly interesting reading material which forms the basis of each lesson brings out in most skilful fashion all the problems which are taken up in those sections which deal with grammatical problems. Sometimes the cleverness of this adaptation is so startling as to be almost uncanny.

Vocabulary development proceeds with equal regard for the best that modern psychology and educational science have taught us. By means of object lessons and other direct-method devices, the student acquires a knowledge of no less than sixty-five words in the very first lesson. At first, this may seem to be too extensive a list. However, the words all have to do with classroom objects and situations, and experience with a preprint of the book proves that students have no difficulty whatever in mastering them. Word lists containing all the new words form a part of the first ten lessons only. This feature helps the student to master his initial vocabulary, particularly the gender of nouns in deriving word meanings, but forces him to use his powers of inference after the tenth lesson. It also introduces him very early to the use of the dictionary.

One of the most striking results of the authors' knowledge of linguistic psychology is the sequence in which they have taken up the various grammatical problems. After making one's way through the various cases of nouns and pronouns, the use of prepositions, and the development of verb forms as they are presented in this book, one cannot help wondering why there was ever any other arrangement in a first-year text. Not only the sequence of topics but also the method of their development takes account of the latest findings of psychology in the language field.

There are many other features of this work which would justify the assertion that it is revolutionary. When all has been said, however, this one fact will remain outstanding: Here is a book in which the student actually learns grammar inductively and, by constant use of what he has learned, acquires readily and pleasantly not only a reading knowledge of German but also a fair start in writing and speaking German. The authors are at no time confused in their own minds as to the possible objectives of the study of German in colleges and

secondary schools. While they themselves put the interpretation of the printed page first, they do not fail to make equally adequate provision for the attainment of other objectives.

It is a work of supererogation on the part of the authors that they have developed a series of modern scientific accomplishment tests to serve as a check on the progress of students in grammar as well as in reading. The tests as well as the grammar have had a thorough trial in the junior-college classes of the University of Chicago.

E. W. BALDUF

CENTRAL Y.M.C.A. COLLEGE, CHICAGO

A minimum course in plane geometry.—Textbooks which will enable teachers to adapt instruction to the capacities of their pupils constitute one of the foremost needs in the field of education today. This need has been met commendably in the case of geometry by a revision¹ of a well-known text, in which each book contains a minimum course and two kinds of optional material.

The organization of the book is described by the authors as follows:

The minimum course includes all the theorems which are indicated as fundamental by the College Entrance Examination Board. These theorems are marked by a star (*), as in the Board's list. The other theorems of the minimum course also all appear in the list of the Board; they are necessary to organize a logical sequence. Almost every proposition is accompanied by one or more exercises, which have been selected, because of their simplicity, to aid in teaching the propositions and in developing skill in solving originals. A unique summarizing review comes at the close of the minimum course of each book. . . . The minimum courses of the five books . . . constitute an exceptionally brief logically developed course in geometry which complies with the requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board—and, lest there be misunderstanding, this is in all respects the briefest course which has ever been recommended [p. iii].

Provision for the abler pupils has been made by including much optional material. First, optional topics appear at the close of each book. In most cases they are not among the topics mentioned in the list of fundamental or subsidiary theorems of either the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements or the College Entrance Examination Board. None of the theorems is required as an authority in the minimum course of the subsequent books. They provide a challenge for the capable and superior pupils while the less capable pupils are mastering the minimal essentials of the course. They are suitable for use as supplementary projects or as topics for programs in high-school mathematics clubs. All the topics appear in some form in current texts, but they are here set apart as they are not required in the logical development of the course. Some of the topics are: "The Line Joining the Midpoints of Two Sides of a Triangle, and Associated Theorems," "Remarkable Points of a Triangle,"

¹ Webster Wells and Walter W. Hart, *Modern Plane Geometry*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926. Pp. x+322.

"Theorems Relating to Two Circles," "Scales and Scale Drawing," "Trigonometric Ratios and Their Applications," "External and Harmonic Division of a Segment," "Numerical Relations among the Segments of a Triangle," "Determination of the Value of π ," "The Incommensurable Cases," and "Symmetry in Plane Figures."

The other optional material consists of about five hundred exercises in the Appendix grouped according to books. Footnotes throughout the text give the points at which these exercises can be profitably included. For example, on page 112 we find the theorem, "The tangents to a circle from an outside point are equal." A corollary and five related exercises follow. At the bottom of the page is the note: "Additional Exercises 10-15, page 282, can be done now." This system of cross-references is one of the unique and valuable contributions of the text.

Several other features of the book deserve mention. There is an introductory chapter on preparatory geometry, which serves as an approach to Book I. Here, by means of mensurational, observational, and intuitive geometry, the pupil paves the way for the more formal work to come. The parallel arrangement of a formal demonstration has been used in the text, but an alternative form is illustrated (p. 21). In addition to the usual tables of formulas, powers and roots, and trigonometric ratios, the Appendix contains illustrative examples in arithmetic and algebra. The processes illustrated are: the addition and subtraction of fractions, the expression of a quotient or a product correct to tenths, the extraction of the square root correct to tenths, and the solution of equations. The fundamental constructions are not found in one group, as is customary in many similar texts. Here each construction follows the theorem necessary for its proof. In a pocket on the inside of the back cover is a "geometry tool." It is a combined protractor, rule, and square made of heavy cardboard.

The text deserves careful consideration on the part of geometry teachers because of its unusual organization of subject matter and provision for individual differences. It is a real thought-provoking effort to solve some of the difficulties attendant upon the teaching of geometry.

JAMES W. HOGE

Childhood indications of future greatness in three hundred geniuses.—That we cannot rationally undertake the formulation of methods of training gifted children until we discover to what extent and how genius is evidenced in childhood is the opinion of Professor Lewis M. Terman, expressed in the Editor's Preface of Volume II of *Genetic Studies of Genius*.¹ This book describes the methods, and presents the findings, of an attempt to estimate the I.Q.'s of three hundred geniuses born between 1450 and 1849. The study was financed by the Commonwealth Fund and the Thomas Welton Stanford Fund.

¹ Catharine Morris Cox, *Genetic Studies of Genius*, Volume II. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1926. Pp. xxiv+842. \$5.00.

The biographies of the geniuses selected for the study were searched for early indications of superior mental ability and for significant environmental influences. Two periods in the life of each subject were studied: (1) childhood and youth to the age of seventeen and (2) early manhood or womanhood from the age of seventeen to the age of twenty-six. The social standing of other members of the family and the early activities of the subject himself were considered significant in rating the genius. His performance as represented by the data in his biographies was compared by each of four judges with the age norms of the Stanford-Binet test. From such a comparison, the I.Q. that would most reasonably account for the early activities disclosed by the biographies was determined for each of the two periods in the life of the genius. The editor explains that the I.Q.'s thus found belong to the biographical data rather than to the subject.

To secure an estimate of the I.Q. of the subject, the author considered the reliability of the data, the reliability of the age norms of the Stanford-Binet test, and the reliability of the individual judges. Reliability was based on only partly objective standards. Coefficients of reliability were computed mathematically. The two I.Q.'s ascribed to the data on any particular genius were then corrected by the use of the coefficients of reliability, and a "Corrected I.Q. Estimate" was made for him.

A sampling of one hundred subjects was taken for a special study of significant environmental influences on the character traits of geniuses. Each subject was rated on sixty-seven character traits. Each trait was made explicit by a brief description. A reliability coefficient of the ratings on the character traits was calculated for each subject. A comparison of ratings with I.Q.'s was made to determine the significance of traits of character other than brightness in accounting for genius.

The conclusions reached may be stated without discussion. Those "who achieve eminence have, in general, a heredity above the average" and have had "superior advantages in early environment" (p. 215). They "are distinguished in childhood by behavior which indicates an unusually high I.Q." (p. 216). They "are characterized not only by high intellectual traits but also by persistence of motive and effort, confidence in their abilities, and great strength or force of character" (p. 218).

The first 219 pages of the book are devoted to an analysis of the problem, a description and justification of the methods used, descriptions of the subjects chosen, explanations of the statistical procedures involved, and a presentation in full of the findings. The remainder of the book is devoted to brief case studies of all the subjects, "A Case Study in Full," "Excerpts from the Early Writings of Young Geniuses," and the indexes.

In the opinion of the reviewer, the book is valuable from two standpoints. In the first place, it collects for scrutiny the facts concerning the precocity of eminent men and women and arrives logically at significant conclusions. These facts and conclusions should be useful to educators in planning for the training

of gifted children. In the second place, the discussion of the techniques used in the study should be helpful to research workers in the same field and in similar fields. The procedures are carefully explained and evaluated throughout the presentation. The complete table of contents and the indexes make the book useful for quick reference work.

CLOY S. HOBSON

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

- BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and KYTE, GEORGE C. *The California Curriculum Study*. Berkeley, California: University of California Printing Office, 1926. Pp. 430.
- BRUBACHER, A. R. *Teaching: Profession and Practice*. New York: Century Co., 1927. Pp. xviii+302. \$2.00.
- BUTTERWECK, JOSEPH SEIBERT. *The Problem of Teaching High School Pupils How To Study*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 237. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. Pp. vi+116. \$1.50.
- COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927. Pp. xvi+368. \$2.75.
- COOK, WILLIAM A. *Federal and State School Administration*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927. Pp. xvi+374. \$2.75.
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